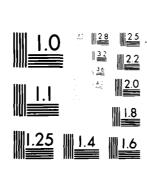
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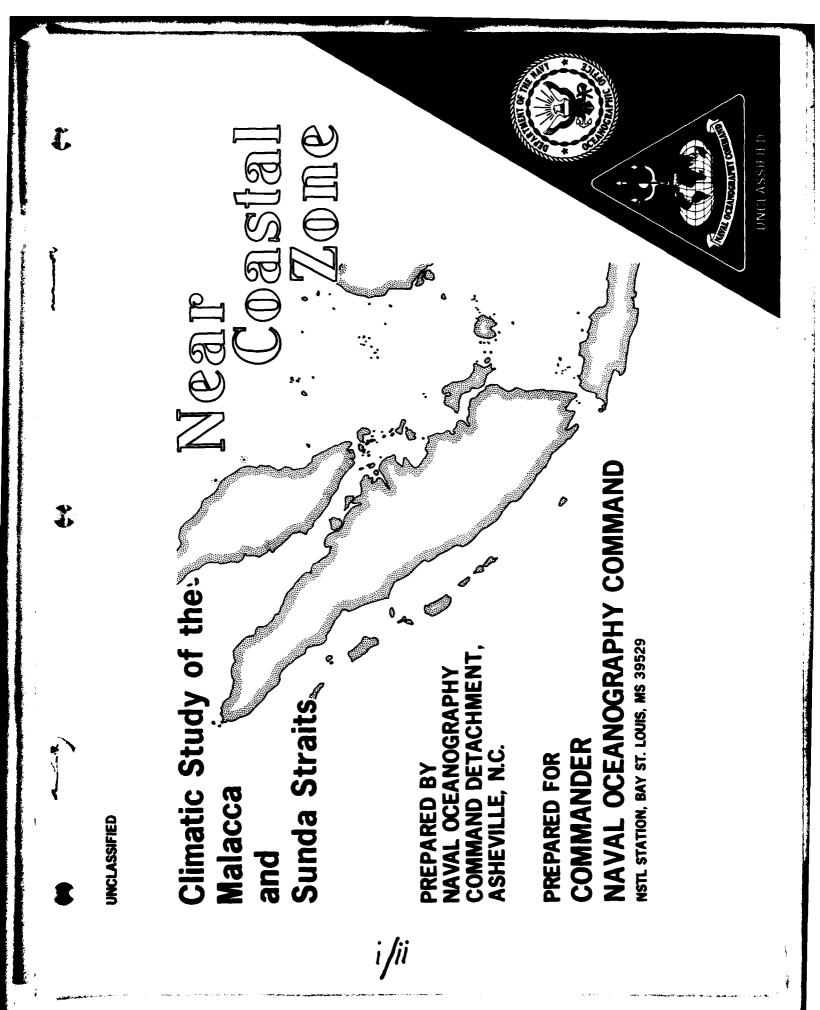
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22-33 kts, (7) surface wind roses.	(8) air and sea	temperature, (9) wave				
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This near-coastal zone study was prepared by direction of the Commander, Naval Oceanography Command and coordinated by the Naval Oceanography Command Detachment, Asheville, North Carolina. Work was performed by the National Climatic Center (NCC).

Introduction

The climate within the study area is largely controlled by the two distinct monsoon seasons: the northeast monsoon (December through March) and the southwest monsoon (April through November). The principal transition months or inter-monsoon periods are April through May and October through November. Figure 1 shows the mean equatorial trough and vector mean winds for January and July. This gives some idea as to the annual displacement of the equatorial trough and the prevailing winds for the two distinct monsoon seasons.

Since the equatorial trough moves across the equator once in a northerly direction and once in a southerly direction each year, it is understandable that many locations report a double maximum for precipitation. Many of the double maximums occur in May and November, but occasionally occur in preceding or following months. For more detail, the seasonal distribution of mean rainfall and air temperatures (Figure 2) and annual rainfall amounts (Figure 3) are shown for selected stations.

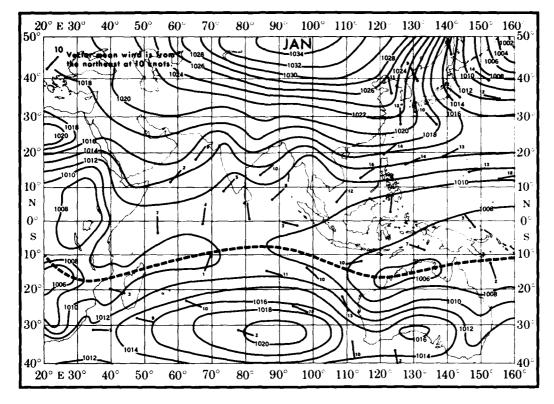
Latitude is one of the most important factors influencing climate. Being close to the equator, conditions vary little from the mean, and climatology is fairly representative of expected conditions. Within the study area, local climates vary more because of local topography and local wind effects. These factors influence thunderstorm development and propagation. In general, an equatorial monsoon climate brings uniformity of precipitation, humidity, and temperature; and, on a comparative worldwide scale, these three elements are found on the upper end of the scale.

Geographical and Data Coverage

This study covers the marine areas leading into and out of the Strait of Malacca and Sunda Strait. It is significant that this area (10°S to 7°N) is divided by the equator. North of the equator the east-west coverage is from 92°E to 107°E, while south of the equator it is from 90°E to 112°E. The surface marine statistics are presented on monthly charts in the form of tables, graphs, and isopleth maps. Tables and graphs by one-degree quadrangle have been split into two areas of slightly smaller geographical coverage: Strait of Malacca, 1°S to 7°N, 94°E to 105°E; Sunda Strait, 10°S to 2°S, 99°E to 110°E.

To supplement the isopleth maps and the one-degree graphs and tables, four representative areas were chosen and additional statistics given. These presentations have been placed in the lower left corner of the isopleth charts. All of the graphs and tables represent the objective compilation of available data; they were not adjusted for suspected biases, and differences may be found when comparing the graphic data with the isopleth analyses.

Approximately 620,000 surface marine observations were used in computing the statistics. These data, taken from NCC's Tape Data Family 11 (TDF-11), contain data collected by ships of various registry traveling through the study area between 1854 and 1979. Inventories of the NCC data set show that most ocean regions of the world have the largest percentage of their observations taken after 1940; but in this case 60% of the observations were taken prior to 1940. As a rule, earlier observations do not contain as many elements as more recent ones. The sea surface current information was extracted from Naval Oceanographic Office Special Publications 1404-IN2 and 1404-IN4, Surface Currents Northeast Indian Ocean Including the Bay of Bengal, Andaman Sea and South China Sea and Surface Currents Central Indian Ocean, respectively.



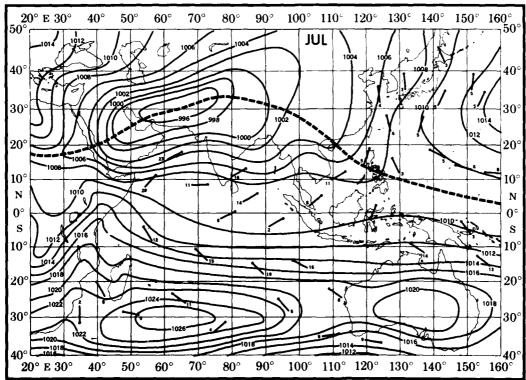


Fig. 1 MEAN EQUATORIAL TROUGH AND VECTOR MEAN WINDS

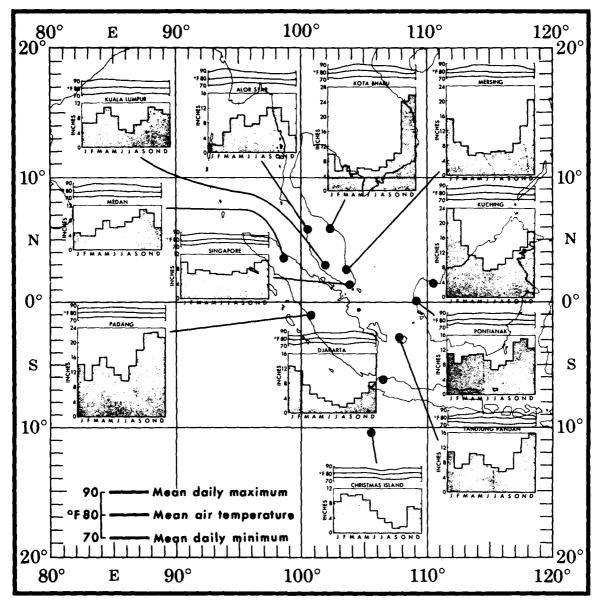


Fig. 2 MONTHLY MEANS OF AIR TEMPERATURE AND RAINFALL

The density of observations is greatest along the major shipping routes and, therefore, the reliability is better in those more-traveled areas. In this region, most of the shipping was in and out of the Malacca Strait providing relatively good coverage, while rather weak coverage is the rule for the remaining areas, especially the region to the west of Sumatra.

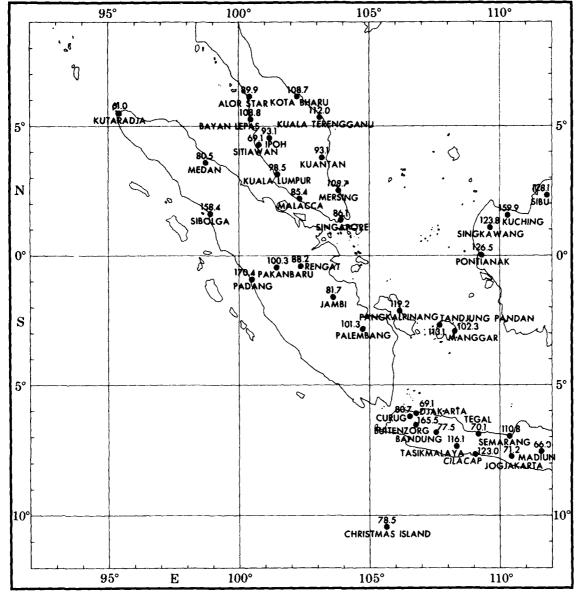


Fig. 3 MEAN ANNUAL RAINFALL (inches)

Physical Features

The Malacca Strait is the highly-traveled channel between the island of Sumatra and the Malay Peninsula that provides passage for trade between the Indian Ocean and the South China Sea. The strait is approximately 500 miles long, varying in width from 40 miles in the south to 300 miles in the north. The depth of the strait ranges from six to 60 fathoms. Also, the southern entrance is restricted to narrower passages by the numerous islands off Singapore. The main connecting route between the Malacca Strait and the South China Sea is through the Singapore Strait which is approximately 10 miles wide by 50 miles long.

Another route between the South China Sea and the Indian Ocean is through the lesser-traveled Sunda Strait which lies between the islands of Sumatra and Java. The channel actually connects the Java Sea, which is a part of the Pacific Ocean (as is the South China Sea), and the Indian Ocean. It is only 16 miles wide at its narrowest point. Depths through the Sunda Strait run from seven to 28 fathoms.

Sumatra, the Malay Peninsula, Borneo, and Java are the major land features in the study area. Sumatra lies on the west side of the Malacca Strait stretching some 1,060 miles in length and with a maximum width of 248 miles. Along its west coast, the Barisan Mountains extend the length of the island containing many peaks from 6,000 feet to 12,000 feet high with the highest being 12,483 feet. Across the Malacca Strait from Sumatra is the Malay Peninsula extending from Thailand to 2°N. The Peninsula also has a mountain range extending down its full length. The highest peak, Tahan, is 7,186 feet; several of the peaks between 3°N and 6°N are near 7,000 feet.

Java lies to the southeast of Sumatra across the Sunda Strait. The island is 661 miles long and 124 miles wide at its widest point. Mountains extend the length of the island with more than 20 peaks extending abve 8,000 feet. The highest peak located on the eastern end of the island is 12,060 feet.

East of Sumatra and north of Java lies Borneo, the largest land mass within the study area. It is rather mountainous in the north and central part with the highest peak of 13,455 feet being located in the northeastern corner, outside the study area. Peaks on the western side of the island are from 5,000 feet to 7,000 feet.

Climate

The climatic regime is equatorial monsoon. Uniformity throughout the year, high temperatures, high humidities, and abundant rainfall best describe its characteristics. It differs from most tropical monsoon climates in its lack of a truly dry season. Seasonal monsoon winds are defined as blowing consistently from one direction during the winter and another direction during the summer. They are caused by the temperature variations between large land masses and the sea. During the warm season, the land (in this case Asia) is much warmer than the sea with resultant low pressure over land; with the reverse during the colder season. This pressure distribution causes the seasonal wind flow known as the monsoon.

A general definition of a monsoon has been adapted from Ramage (1971). It defines the monsoon area as encompassing regions with January and July surface circulations in which:

- 1. The prevailing wind direction shifts by at least 120° between January and July.
- 2. The average frequency of prevailing wind directions (in quadrants) exceeds 40% in January and July.
- 3. The mean resultant wind speed in at least one of the months exceeds 3 m sec^{-1} ; and,
- 4. Fewer than one cyclone-anticyclone circulation alternation occurs every two years in either month in a 5° latitude-longitude rectangle.
- By "squaring off" and using the south Asian mountains as a natural northern boundary, the only region to meet all of the above criteria is enclosed by 35°N, 25°S, 30°W, and 170°E.

The four representative areas were examined to determine how well they meet these monsoon criteria (see representative statistics). The prevailing winds shifted by at least 120° between January and July for all four areas. To examine the second criterion the eight-point wind scale was adjusted into a four-point system by simply adding adjacent categories together. The results are given in Table 1 below:

TABLE 1

		Prevailing Quadrant	Percent Frequency		
Area 1	January	N-NE	71%		
	July	S-SE	59%		
Area 2	January	NE-E	44%		
	July	SE-S	35%		
Area 3	January	NE-E	77%		
	July	S-SW	80%		
Area 4	January	W-NW	52%		
	July	E-SE	63%		

The second stipulation was met by all except Area 2, which departed marginally from 40%. It must be understood that the orientation of the quadrants could have some bearing on the outcome of this examination, ours being only one expedient method.

Table 2 shows the mean resultant wind speeds for the representative areas used to test the third constraint. Again, Area 2 fails the criteria.

TABLE 2

		Mean Resultant Direction	Mean Res	Mean Resultant Speed				
Area 1	}anuary }uly	15 degree 164 degree	es 6.6 knots es 4.3 knots	3.4 m sec ⁻¹) 5 (2.2 m sec ⁻¹)				
Area 2	January July	43 degree 177 degree		(1.8 m sec ⁻¹) (0.7 m sec ⁻¹)				
Area 3	January July	64 degree 218 degree		(4.5 m sec ⁻¹) (5.9 m sec ⁻¹)				
Area 4	January July	298 degree 126 degree		(2.7 m sec ⁻¹) (3.9 m sec ⁻¹)				

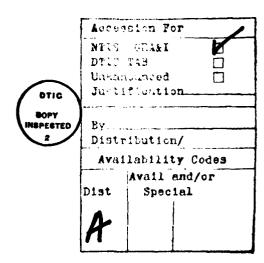
The wind constancy is relatively low for Area 2 at 53% during January and 24% during July, reflecting a variable wind direction. In the same light, the scalar mean winds are also relatively light averaging 3.3 m sec⁻¹ in January and 2.8 m sec⁻¹ in July. Even if Area 2 had a high constancy, it is doubtful the third constraint would have been met with such low scalar mean wind speeds.

The fourth requirement is met by all areas, as substantiated by Klein (1957) where monthly charts show the number of cyclones' and anticyclones' centers for 20 years by five-degree square. Migratory cylones and anticyclones rarely appear in the lower latitudes.

In the monsoon definition there are no precipitation considerations such as a dry or wet season. For example, the Sahara Desert falls within the defined monsoon region.

As one studies various texts and articles on the tropics, one discovers a number of terms are used to describe the general climatic features of the region. Many of these terms are used interchangeably while others have become outdated as more is learned about the area. The confusion among terms stems from their number; overly-simple models; introduction of new terms by authors who are rightly trying to distinguish their innovations from others; and, as Cumming (1973) pointed out, from extending mid-latitude concepts into the tropics. Some of the terms found in the literature that tend to lead to confusion are listed below. They have been placed in groups, and an attempt at defining them follows.

- Group 2: Intertropical convergence zone
 Intertropical wind convergence zone
 Tropical convergence zone
 Convergence zone
 Equatorial convergence zone
 Near-equatorial convergence zone
 Intertropical front
 Tropical front
 Equatorial front
 Cyclonic directional shear zone
 Cyclonic shear zone
 Tropical confluence
 Confluent zones
- Group 3: Heat low
 Thermal low
 Monsoon depression
 Monsoon low
 Mean circulation centers
- Group 4: Equatorial easterlies
 Deep trades
 Deep easterlies
- Group 5: Tropical easterlies
 Subtropical easterlies
- Group 6: Easterly wave
 Equatorial vortex
 Equatorial wave



Group 7: Subtropical highs
Subtropical anticyclones
Subtropical ridge line
Near-equatorial buffer zone
Oceanic high
Oceanic anticyclones

Terms in groups 1 and 2, and rarely group 3, are used to define the line of demarkation between the trade winds out of the North (Northeast or Northwest trades) and those out of the South (Southwest or Southeast trades). Generally, this definition is reserved for those terms in group 2. Those in group 1 generally refer to the quasicontinuous belt of low pressure lying between the subtropical highs of the Northern and Southern Hemispheres, and within this region you might detect an area referred to by one of the terms in group 2.

In monsoon meteorology, the terms grouped together in group 3 basically refer to the seasonal low formed over the continent during the warm season and over the adjacent sea during the cold season. In many cases the equatorial trough (group 1) lines up with the monsoon low (group 3).

Those in group 4 are often referred to as the trade winds in the summer hemisphere when they are very deep (8 to 10 km_{*}), while group 5 sometimes refers to the trade winds when they are shallow and exhibit a strong vertical shear. Commonly both groups (4 and 5) are used in the same context referring to the easterly trades.

In group 6 there is a difference in intensity as an equatorial vortex is a closed low within the equatorial trough that develops from an equatorial wave (easterly wave) within the equatorial easterlies.

The last group (7) refers to one of the semi-permanent highs centered near 30°N or 30°S.

No matter what nomenclature is used there is a quasi-continuous belt of low pressure surrounding the globe betweeen the subtropical high pressures. This trough of low pressure near the equator (therefore, named the equatorial or near-equatorial trough) remains relatively constant throughout the year across the Atlantic and the eastern Pacific, but varies markedly by season across the western Pacific and Indian Oceans. The reason for this behavior is related to the subtropical highs which lay off the west coasts of the These highs maintain their character year-round with their positions and intensities varying slightly with the seasons. Where the equatorial trough is tightly wedged between two subtropical highs, there is little migration. However, over Asia during the Northern Hemisphere winter, the main feature is the Siberian high. At that time, the equatorial trough is wedged between the Siberian high and the Mascarene (subtropical South Indian Ocean) high. During the Northern Hemisphere summer, when the Siberian high virtually disappears as a long-term mean feature, the equatorial trough over the Indian Ocean moves far north and aligns itself with the thermal low (monsoon trough) over southwest Asia. Because of the alignment, this equatorial trough is often referred to as the monsoon trough.

In the tropics the locations of the equatorial trough, the wind convergence zone, and maximum cloudiness do not always coincide. Godshall (1968) shows that a displacement exists between the maximum cloud cover areas and the convergence zone centers and that some of these displacements are quite large. The low-level summer monsoon trough, located to the north of our study area, has west winds on the equatorward side. The belt of maximum clouds is often confined to this west-wind area (Sadler, 1970).

One of the most useful tools for a forecaster in the tropics is the gradient-level wind chart. Comparisons of the daily gradient-level chart with the mean charts can give an indication to a forecaster that the weather is likely to change, especially where there are significant departures. A useful publication for this purpose is the Air Weather Service Technical Report 215, Volumes I and II, by Atkinson and Sadler (1970). Atkinson states that when comparing the daily isotach patterns to long-term resultant means, an abnormally large horizontal cyclonic wind shear at the gradient-level may indicate above aut ho red act ivity. Atkinson (1971) also Guide to Tropical Meteorology, which presents many useful techniques in tropical analysis and forecasting. He states two prerequisites for accurate forecasts: (1) good analyses; and, (2) diagnoses of the cause of existing weather. The sparsity of reporting stations may limit the achievement of these prerequisites and, therefore, adversely affects the forecaster's skill.

Preparation of surface, gradient, and upper level charts proves to be very valuable in making short-range forecasts. By using all available data sources (surface stations, upper air stations, ships, satellites, radar, pilot reports, and climatology), a forecaster can construct a relatively good analysis of existing conditions. (See Fig. 4 for reporting upper air stations within the study area.) Then by extrapolating the analyzed features, one can make a fairly accurate short-range forecast. Due to the nature of the data, it is easier to extrapolate weather features associated with wind directional changes than wind speed changes. In the tropics the diurnal pressure and temperature changes are generally greater than the interdiurnal changes, making a basic knowledge of these diurnal changes a must in preparing skilled forecasts. Temperatures generally peak around 1:00 p.m. local time and reach a minimum near 6:00 a.m. Pressures peak around 10:00 a.m. and 11:00 p.m. with a minimum around 4:00 a.m. and 4:00 p.m. local time.

Stability indices have not proven to be of much use in forecasting convective activity in the tropics. Therefore, the most useful short-range forecast tool for convective activity is the ship's radar or radar reports from coastal sites.

Other forecasting aids such as radar climatologies, conditional climatologies, and objective forecast studies can be prepared for fixed locations but not very effectively for moving ships.

Hubert (1961), in a case study, showed that a vigorous system which was depicted on a satellite picture could not be delineated by standard meteorological analyses. This continues to be true today, thus underscoring the utility of satellite imagery in tropical analysis. Riehl (1979) states that, since tropical cyclones develop from cloud systems, all potential development for any location within the tropics, can be pinpointed with satellite information -- a notable technological achievement. Conventional data must also be heeded. For example, if a forecaster discovers a wind shift at a station in the tropics, then he needs to scrutinize all possible data in an effort to determine if it is a local effect or a moving wave. Again, the satellite can help a great deal with this type of problem since it will show a well-developed wave.

In a study prepared for the U.S. Army Electronics Command by the National Engineering Science Company (Goldman and Freeman, 1965), it was theorized that there is an internal wave in the easterlies at the interface of the tropical inversion which traps the lower moist layer and the upper layer of drier air. Disturbances in this internal wave can create convective activity. Standard analyses in the tropics did not generally recognize these internal waves until they became associated with showers. One of the problems was the lack of soundings. The advent of satellite soundings improved tropical analysis considerably, although further development is necessary to utilize these four-dimensional concepts. Surface data along with the potential temperature and winds along the boundary layer of the inversion must be analyzed a number of times a day in order to locate and track the internal waves.

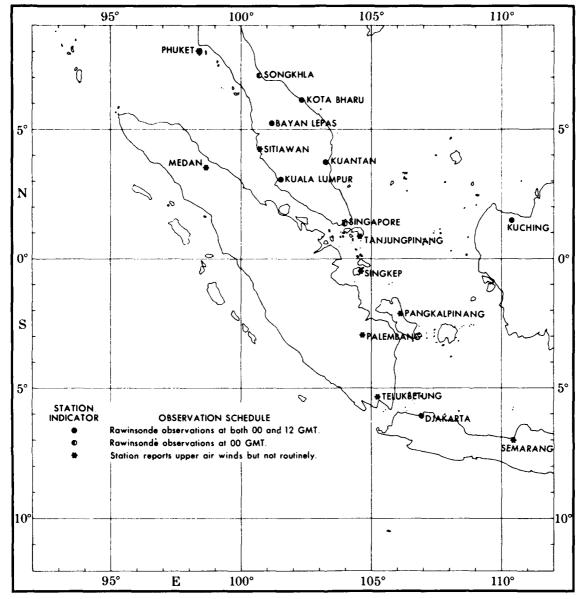


Fig. 4 UPPER AIR REPORTING STATIONS AS OF NOVEMBER 1981

Squalls and thunderstorms are the most significant weather features within the study area. Some of these may be spawned by the rare tropical cyclones that skirt the northern and southern periphery, but they are not generally a problem. Strong lines of thunderstorms that develop across the Malacca Strait are known as "Sumatras." During the southwest monsoon (April through November) the Sumatras, usually occurring at night, generally move from the southwest; although, sometimes out of the west or northwest. Sumatras are produced by the southwest monsoon winds being reinforced by strong mountain winds that are generated by nighttime radiation from the higher grounds followed by the descent of this cooler, more dense air. The warm seas, cool mountain air, and the orographic lift by the numerous mountain ranges produce the heavy thunders to ms and abundant rainfall. These Sumatras move out over the Malacca Strait and, in many instances, onto the west coast of the Malay Peninsula. Although the annual rainfall for the region is one of the heaviest on earth, it is due more to convective downpours rather than extended periods of precipitation (Kendrew, 1942). In fact, they have considerable periods of sunshine.

A maximum number of thunderstorm days occurs on the west coast of the Malay Peninsula during April, the transition into the southwest monsoon. The frequency of thunderstorm days along this area is higher during the southwest monsoon than the northeast monsoon with a minimum number of thunderstorm days occurring during February. Even though the number of thunderstorm days has a seasonal pattern, the monthly precirelatively During the amount s remain uniform. northeast (December-March), there are few thunderstorm days along the east coast of Malay, but a significant number on the west coast. Nieuwolt (1966) points out that an inverse correlation exists over the east coast of Malay between the strength of the monsoon and the amount of precipitation received, so usually the stronger the winds the less the precipitation. This appears in many regions of the study area where the highest mean monthly precipitation values occur during the transition month of November, as the northeast and southwest monsoons coalesce.

EQUATORIAL WEATHER FEATURES WITHIN THE STUDY AREA

Precipitation

Of all the elements recorded in the marine data base, precipitation is one of those most subject to error in both the way it is observed and interpreted. Many observers have a bias for certain present weather codes and there may be a fair weather bias introduced especially in the more recent years as ships try to avoid extremely bad weather (which is seldom encountered in the study area). A fair weather bias may also be enhanced if the weather observer fails to take an observation because of other priorities during foul weather (heavy ship traffic, entering a port, etc.).

Orographic effects may cause precipitation patterns and the frequency of thunderstorms to vary greatly from the ocean environment to nearby land areas. Subtle changes of five to ten percent in the monthly mean precipitation over the water can be detected on the isopleth charts. During the northeast monsoon (as compared to the southwest monsoon) the percent of observations reporting precipitation is five percent less to the northeast of the Malay Peninsula and five percent greater to the southwest of Sumatra and Java. The terms northeast and southwest monsoon are very descriptive of the climate over the South China Sea but not quite so descriptive of conditions in the study area south of the equator, especially south of Java. The characteristic wind flow also depends on the location of the equatorial trough.

The northeast monsoon starts its southerly movement during October over southeast Asia and does not reach the southern end of the Malay Peninsula until mid-December. Over much of the study area during November and December, equatorial westerly winds, remnants of the southwest monsoon, converge with the southerly limit of the northeast monsoon in the equatorial trough resulting in widespread heavy rainfall along the air-mass boundary (World Survey of Climatology, Volume 9). Rainfall is also enhanced by the mountain ranges which provide orographic lift. As a result, November and December are the wettest months along the northeastern coast of the Malay Peninsula, averaging over 20 inches at Kota Bharu and Kula Trengganu. February and April have the minimum precipitation over the northeast Malay Peninsula. Even though the wind force during February is similar to that of January, the average amount of precipitation during February is approximately half that of January. This decrease may be due to a weak thermal low forming over mainland Asia and deflecting the main air current over the South China Sea. This causes divergence, subsidence; and, thus, prevents formation of disturbances (World Survey of Climatology, Volume 9).

With the many mountain ranges, valleys, and coastal areas within the study area, the precipitation pattern tends to be quite complex. The northeast monsoon brings the heaviest rains to the east coast of the Malay Peninsula, and the southwest monsoon the heavier rains to the west coast of Sumatra. In both monsoon seasons the areas on either side of the Malacca Strait find themselves within the rain-shadow (opposite side of the mountain range from the rain-producing winds). This is clearly illustrated by the mean annual rainfall amounts (Fig. 3). The transition months of March to April and October to November bring the greatest amounts of precipitation to the southwest coast of the Malay Peninsula while Singapore on the southern end has its maximum during December.

On the west coast of Sumatra, Padang has its greatest rainfall during November and its least during July. Java has a minimum during the southwest monsoon, and maximum during the northeast monsoon regardless of the prevailing winds or whether one is on the windward or lee side of the mountains. Djakarta, on the northwest end of Java, has its maximum precipitation in January and minimum during July and August; while Cilacap on the south-central portion of the island has its maximum during November and minimum during July.

Looking at the marine area maps, even though the percentage of present weather observations reporting precipitation (an estimate of the probability of precipitation) does not change drastically, one can see a slight decrease in the frequency of precipitation during the southwest monsoon while the equatorial trough has moved far north over southern Asia.

Thunderstorms

Buitenzorg, in the hills nearby Djakarta, reports over 300 thunderstorm days per year (Fig. 5), the highest recorded frequency on earth (Riehl, 1954). Yet, the frequency of marine observations reporting thunder only reaches five to ten percent as a maximum in the marine areas where uniformity is the main theme reflected by the thunderstorm isopleth charts. For the study area a moderate peak in thunderstorm frequency is reported during the November to April period for the Sunda Strait and regions near Java. The April to November period brings the highest frequencies over the Malacca Strait and somewhat of a decrease over the Sunda Strait and Java regions.

Tropical Cyclones

At maturity a tropical cyclone is one of the most feared and hazardous creations of nature and could prove to be disasterous for those ships entering or exiting the study area. In order for convective activity to organize into a vortex, it must be influenced by the coriolis parameter which is too small to be effective within approximately five degrees of the equator. However, the early stages of development of tropical cyclones have been observed within two degrees of the equator in the western Pacific and northeastern Indian Ocean. Thus, the limiting factors of the coriolis parameter may have been overrated (Riehl, 1979). Tropical cyclones do frequently form within eight to ten degrees of the equator; however, it is rare for an intense cyclone to be found within ten degrees of the equator.

Traffic in the Northern Hemisphere has the greatest chance of encountering a tropical cyclone in the North Pacific from May through December, with the greatest probabilities of storms occurring from July through September. In the North Indian Ocean chances are greatest from October through December with a second maximum occurring from April through June. In the Southern Hemisphere the main season runs from November through April.

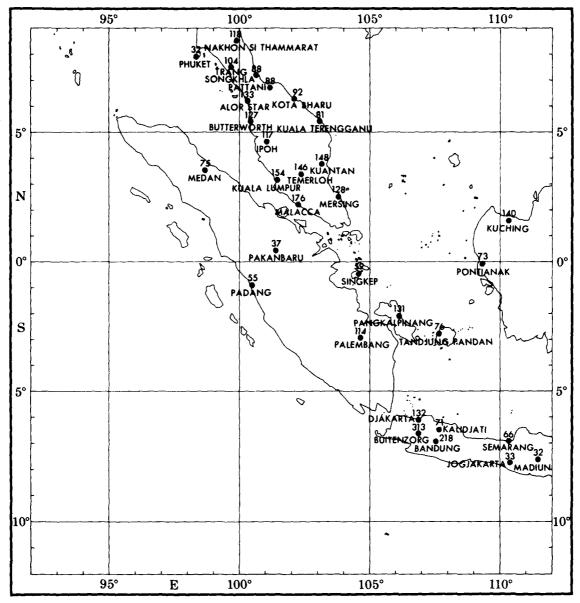


Fig. 5 MEAN ANNUAL NUMBER OF DAYS WITH THUNDERSTORMS

Air Temperature

Air temperatures are one of the most frequently observed elements by mariners. Due to instrument exposure on many ships, the heating effects of the ship's structure has a tendency to produce higher than actual ambient air temperature readings. This is especially true in the tropics where sunny, calm days are numerous. Minimum seasonal variability is noted in the study area as mean monthly temperatures range from only 78°F to 84°F. In fact, the diurnal variation is greater than the mean monthly seasonal variation (Fig. 2).

Sea Surface Temperature

Sea surface temperatures are also recorded with a fairly high frequency in marine observations. Two principal methods for sampling are used, intake thermometers and bucket temperatures. Even though the two systems produce slightly different results, the data can still be used with considerable confidence. The sea surface temperature gradient also reflects the two distinct monsoon seasons. During the northeast monsoon, the sea surface temperature gradient is relatively tight to the east of the Malay Peninsula and weak to the south of Java. The reverse is true during the southwest monsoon. Monthly mean temperatures range from just over 77°F to just under 86°F.

Surface Winds

Surface winds are one of the most commonly observed elements. Many of the observations from the NCC data base are visual observations based on the roughness of the sea. In more recent years more and more ships are acquiring anemometers and reporting measured winds. Prior to 1963 many of the wind speeds were recorded in the Beaufort scale; however, such estimates have proven to be quite reliable and can be used with a high degree of confidence. Five sets of wind speed isopleth charts were produced for this study, but only three are presented: mean winds, percent frequencies of wind less than or equal to 10 knots; and percent frequency of winds between 11 and 21 knots. The other two categories, percent frequency of wind speeds between 22 and 33 knots and greater than or equal to 34 knots, had percent frequencies of less than five percent. For more detail, one should reference the wind speed distribution graphs presented for the four representative areas. As with the sea surface temperatures, the wind speeds as well as the directions reflect the monsoon seasons. During the northeast monsoon, the mean wind speeds and frequency of higher winds are greatest to the east of the Malay Peninsula and less to the south of Java. This process reverses during the southwest monsoon. The remaining areas, especially northwest of Sumatra, do not show quite as strong a transition.

Visibility

Visibilities are difficult to measure at sea because of the lack of reference points. Climatically, many low visibility observations are probably missed because the mate is too busy (fair weather bias). However, the coarseness of the coding intervals tends to minimize the problem permitting the summarized data to be relatively consistent. The visibility-tables that are presented by one-degree square show the entire region to have a high frequency (90% plus) of visibilities of five miles or better.

Ceiling and Visibility

Aircraft-type ceilings are not available from marine observations. The ceilings are estimated as the height of the lowest cloud when low clouds cover more than half the sky. When the sky is totally obscured by rain, fog, smoke or other phenomena, the total obscuration is considered a ceiling with a height of zero. The infrequent occurrence of ceilings less than 600 feet and/or visibility less than two nautical miles lead us to drop this presentation and the lower category of less than 300 feet and/or visibility less than one nautical mile. However, higher categories of ceiling and visibility are presented.

Wave Heights

Wave heights have been recorded in a consistent quantitative code only since the late 1940's. The reluctance of many observers to take wave observations in the earlier years and the difficulty in estimating waves, especially in confused seas, makes wave observations one of the least commonly observed elements. They are also subject to biases. Generally the heights are too low, the periods too short, and the sea-swell discrimination poor (Quayle, 1980). The data in this study have not been adjusted for these suspected biases other than being processed through a quality control procedure where an internal check was made between wind speed and sea height. The data were also arrayed and apparently erroneous outliers deleted in both the sea and swell data. As with both temperature and winds, the effects of monsoon seasons can be detected from the wave height charts. These effects can be spotted on the wave charts greater than or equal to three feet, but even more obviously on the percent frequencies of waves greater than or equal to eight feet. Over the South China Sea, waves are highest during the northeast monsoon. Over the Indian Ocean south of Java and Sumatra, waves are highest during the southwest monsoon.

Ocean Currents

The ocean current charts are compiled principally from ship drift reports that were forwarded by the various merchant marines to the Naval Oceanographic Office. From these drift observations the set (direction) and drift (speed) of the prevailing currents are calculated for each one-degree square. The density of observations is greatest along the major shipping routes and reliability of the current charts is best in these areas. The data are considered most useful when used collectively as in summaries where a large number of observations are available.

The surface current charts displayed for the Malacca Strait are winter (November through April), summer (May through October), and annual (January through December). For the Sunda Strait the displayed charts are summer (January through March), autumn (April through June), winter (July through September), spring (October through December), and annual (January through December).

Summary

To date, no reliable numerical weather prediction models have been developed for the tropics. Until progress is made in this field, climatology will continue to be one of the most valuable forecast tools. As stated in the introduction, conditions vary little from the mean in the tropics making climatology a good representative of expected conditions. The goal of this climatic study is to provide the synoptic meteorologist with the necessary climatology with which to improve his forecasts.

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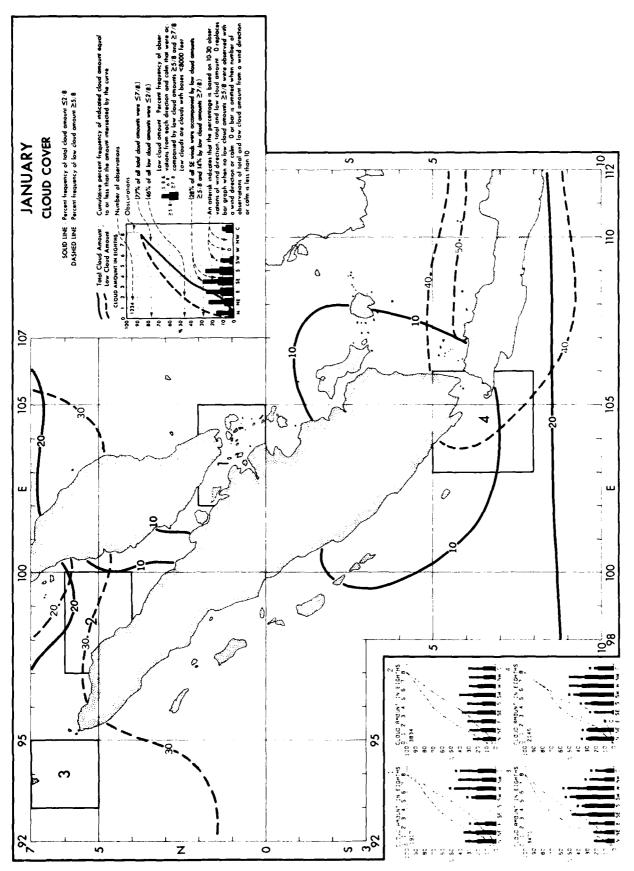
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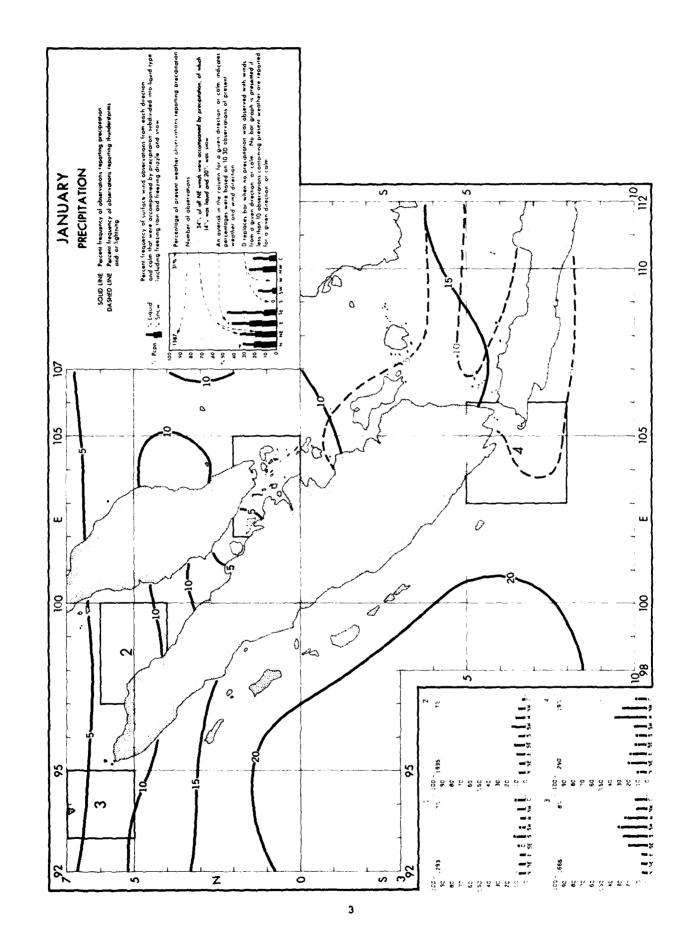
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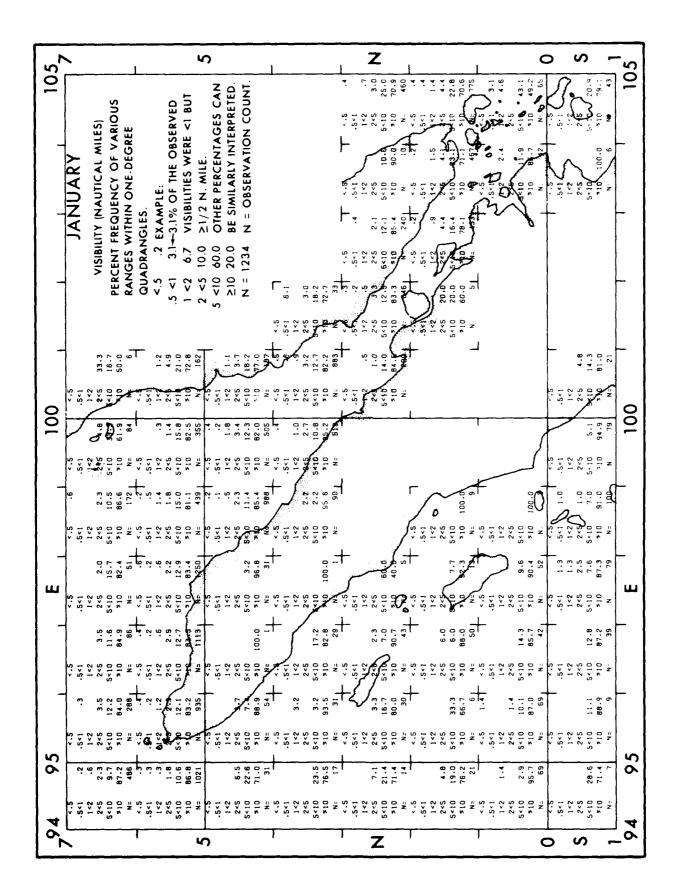
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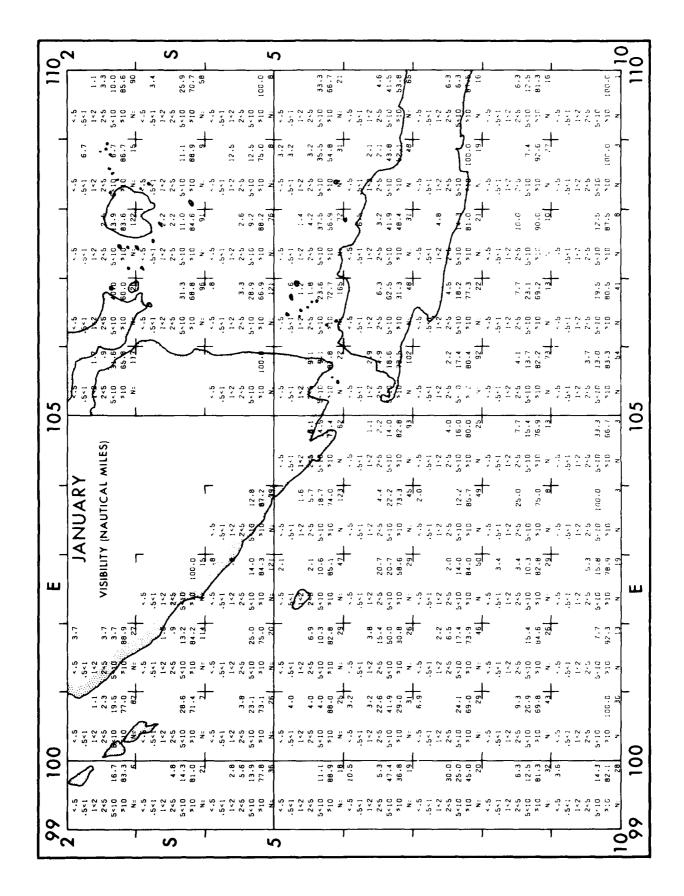
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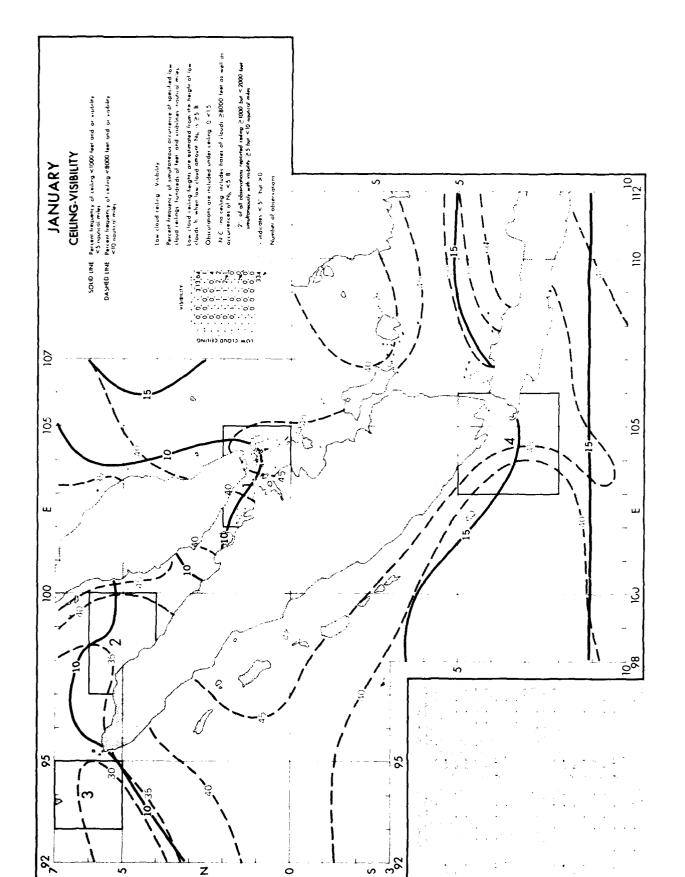
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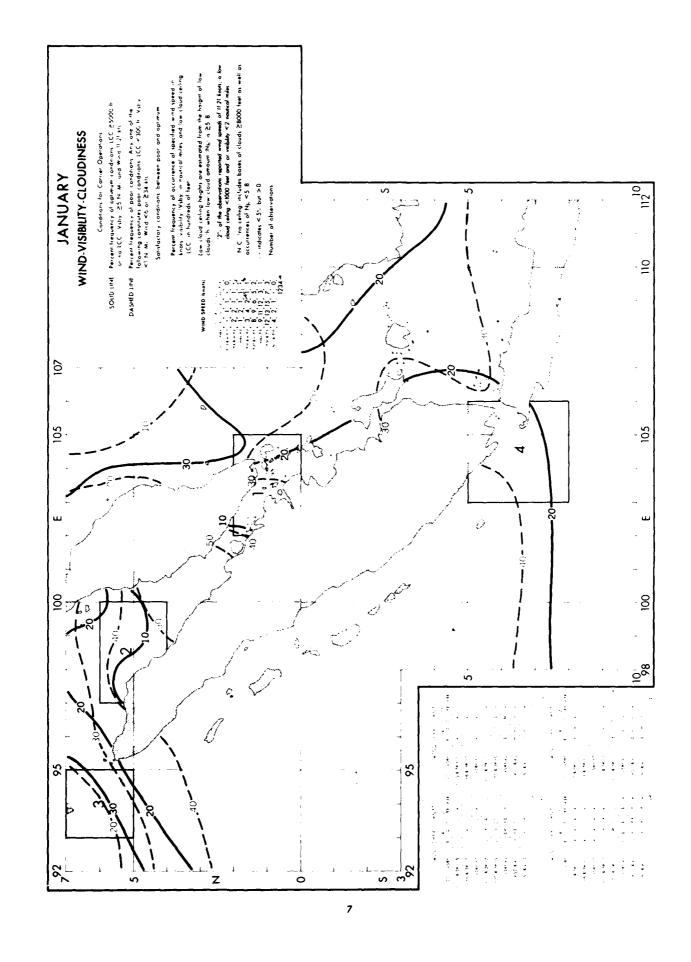


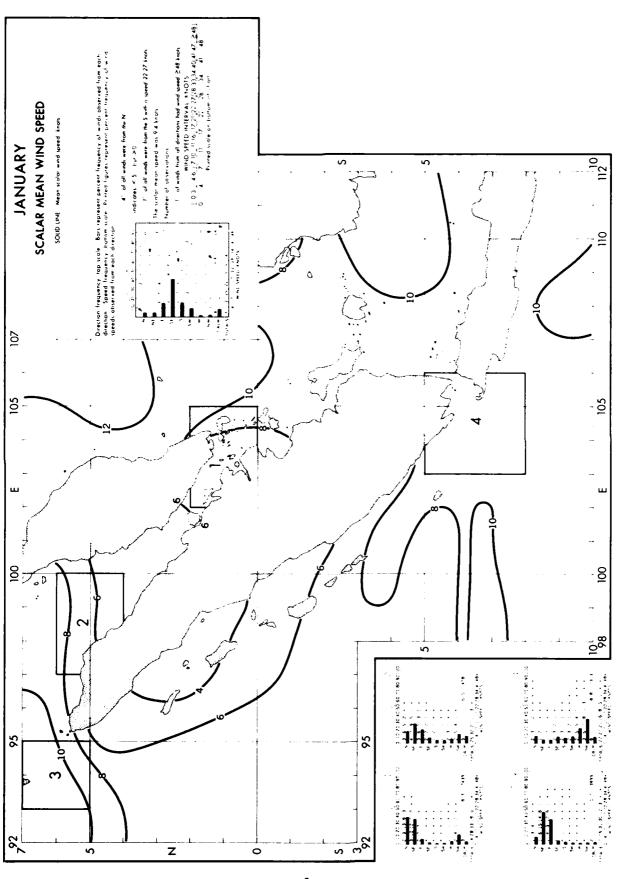


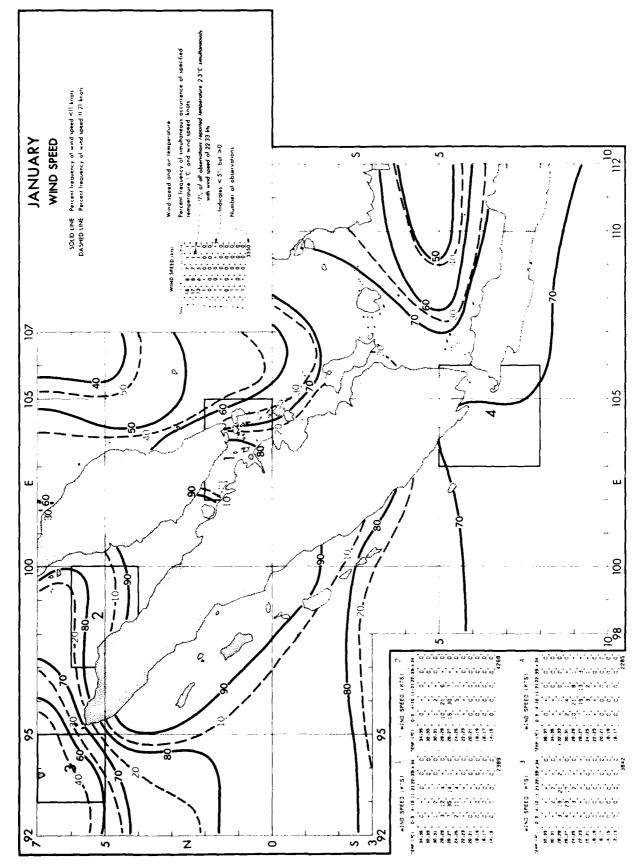


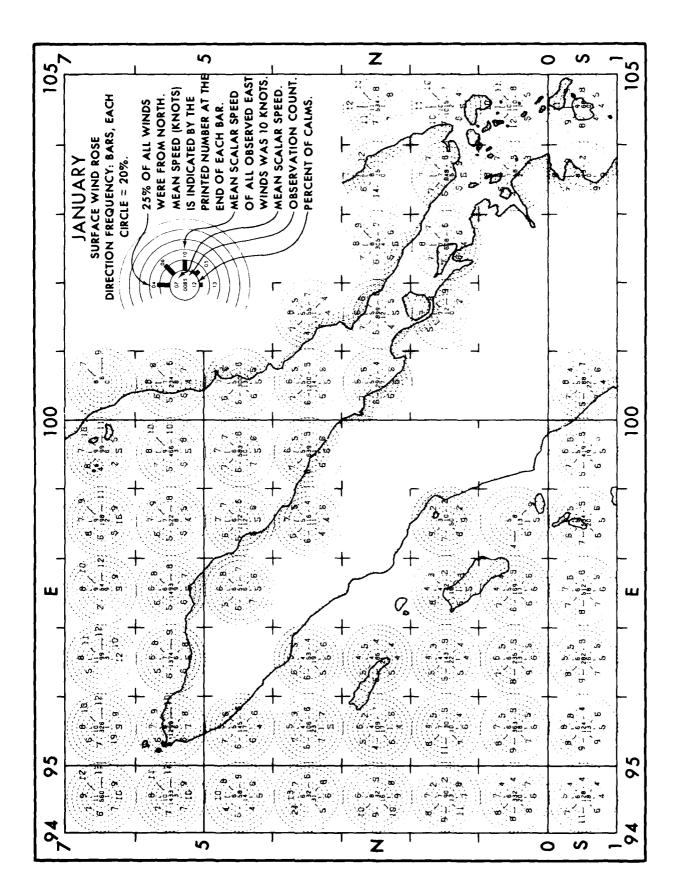


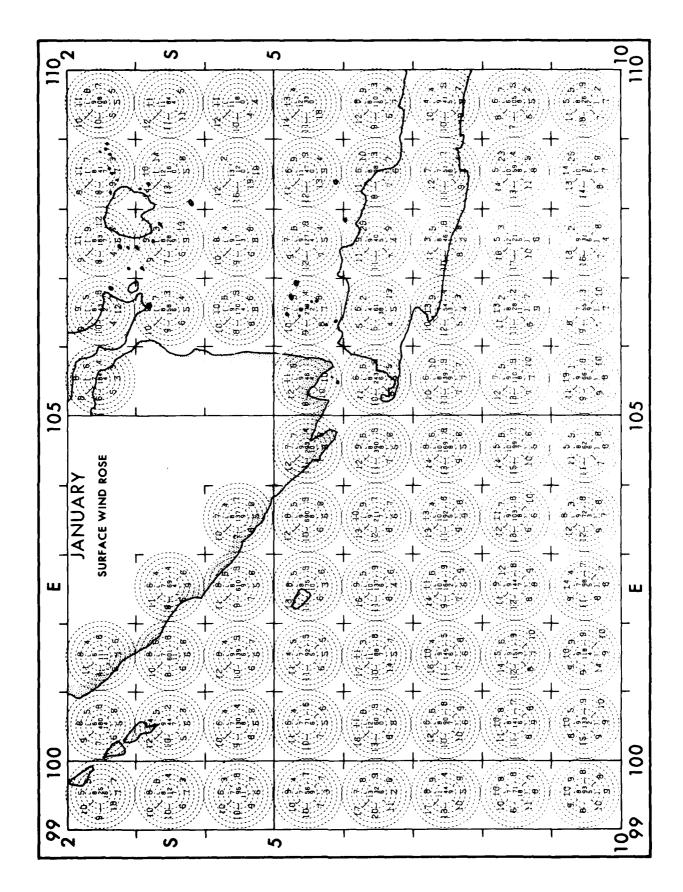


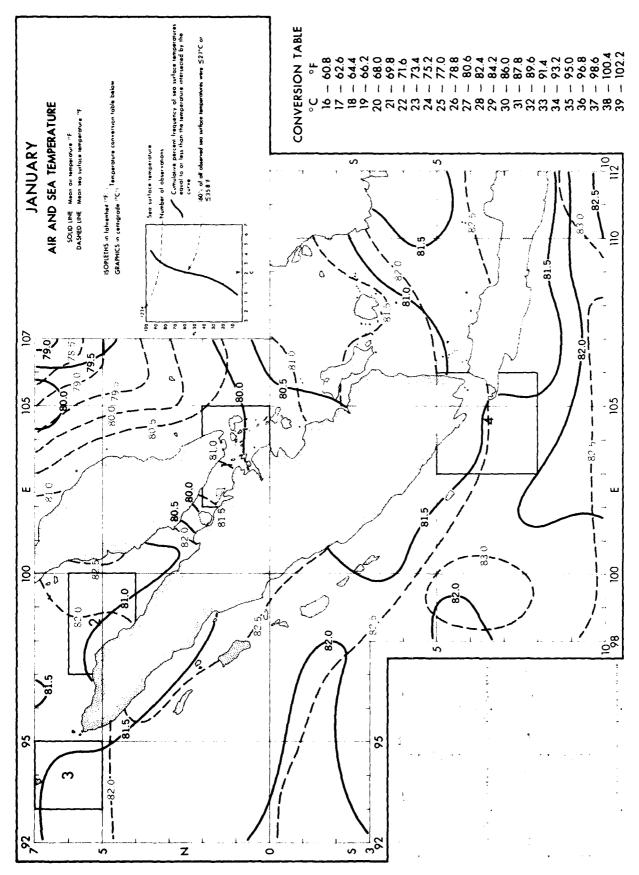


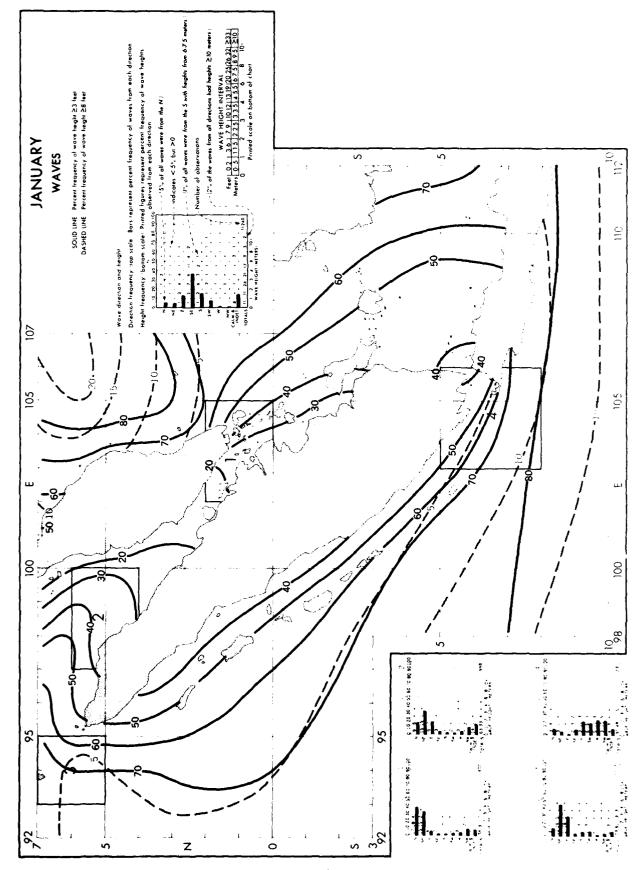


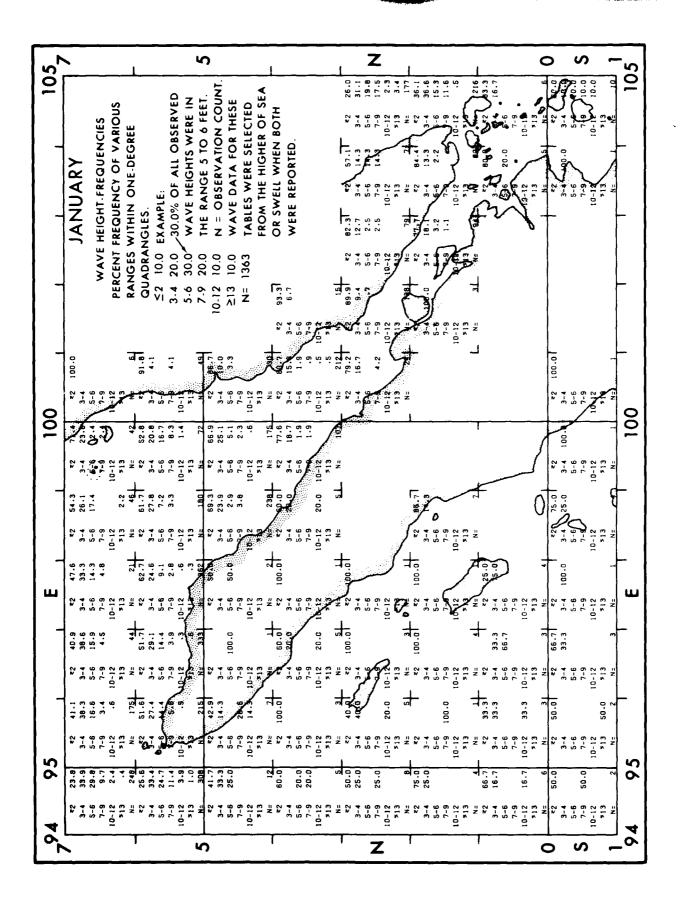


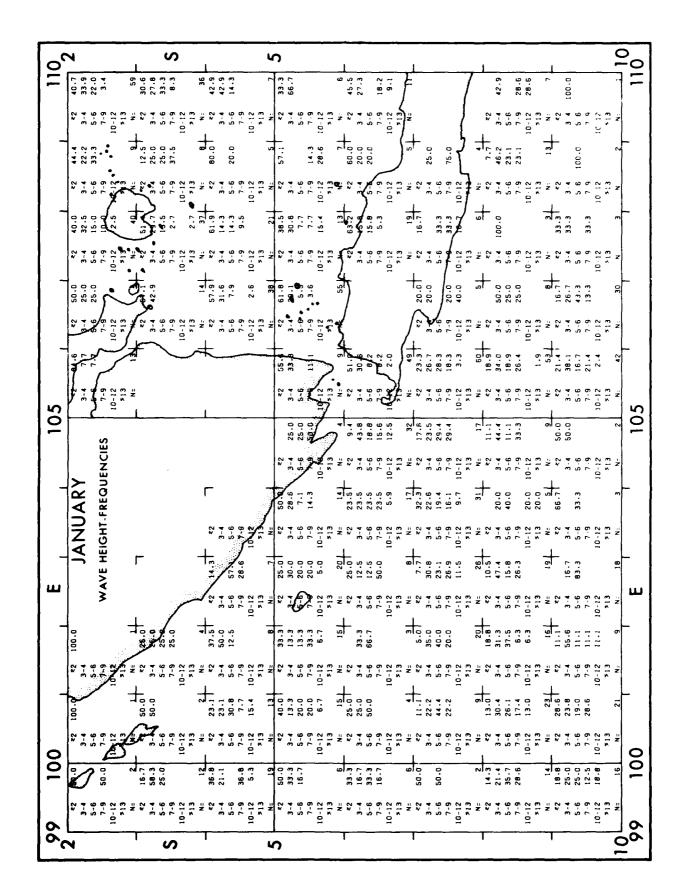


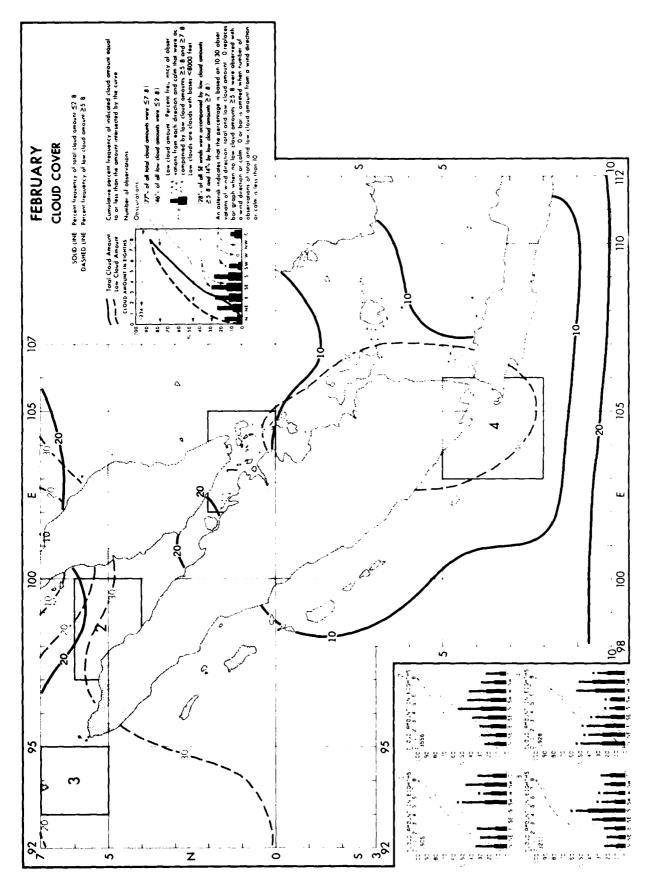


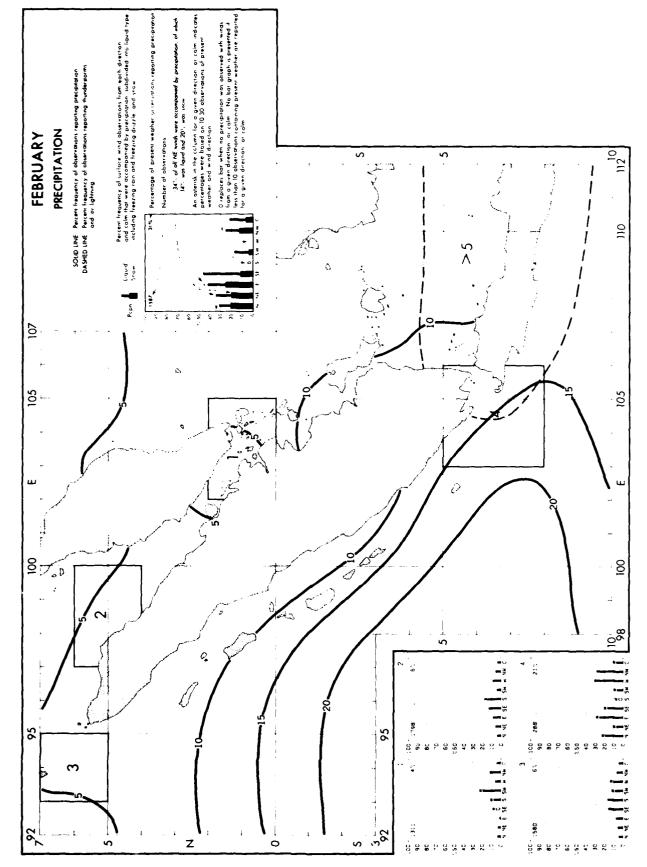


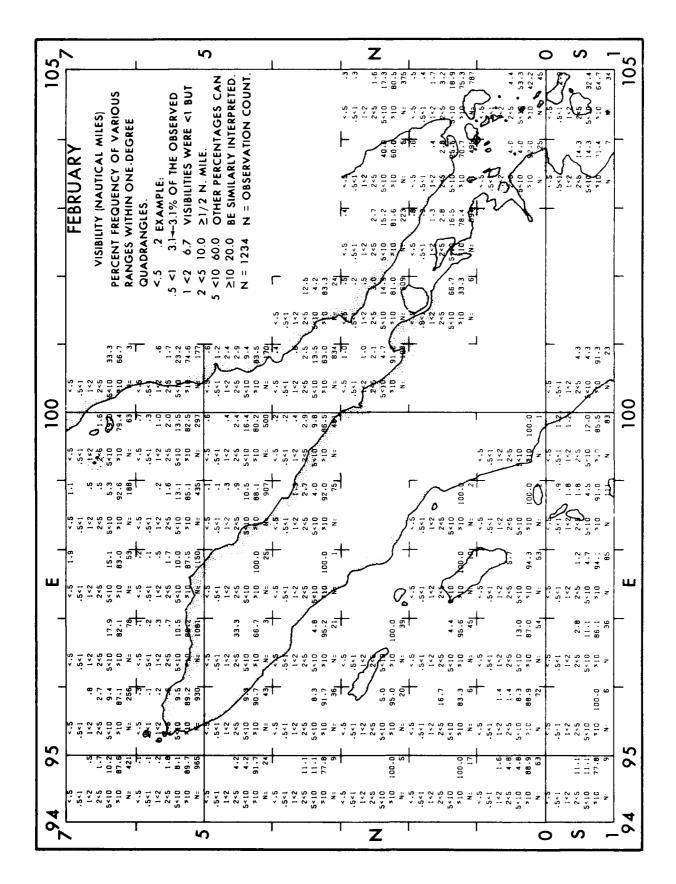


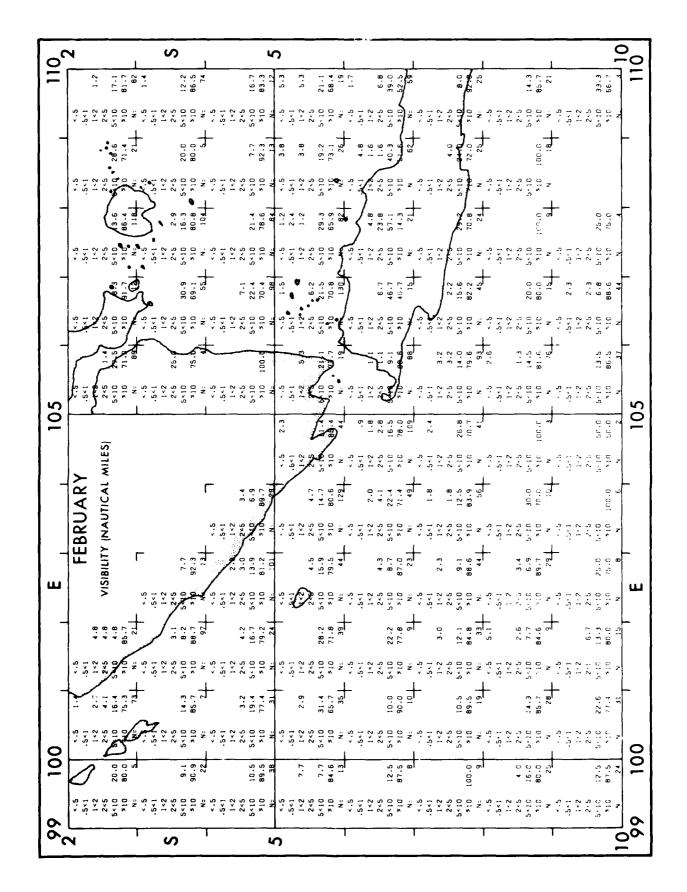


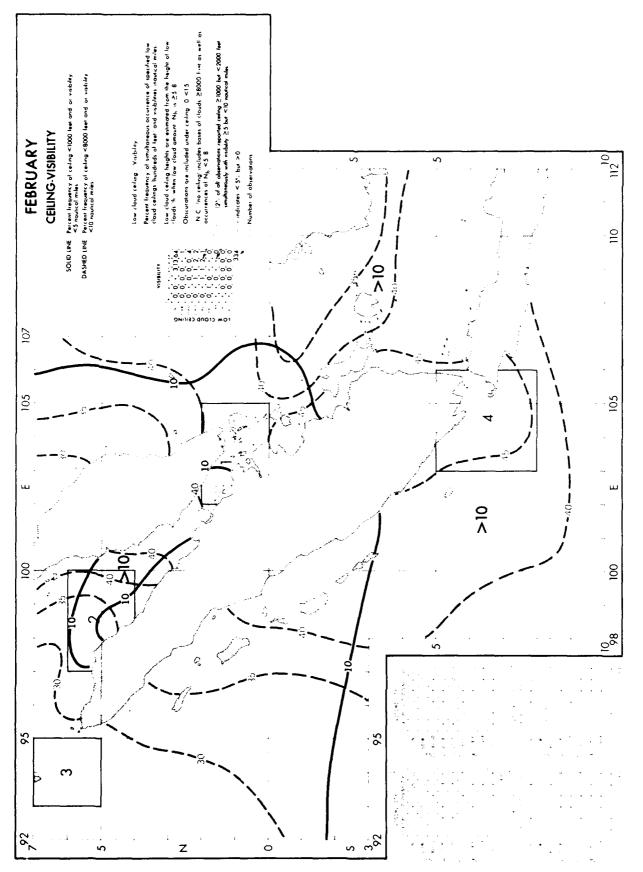


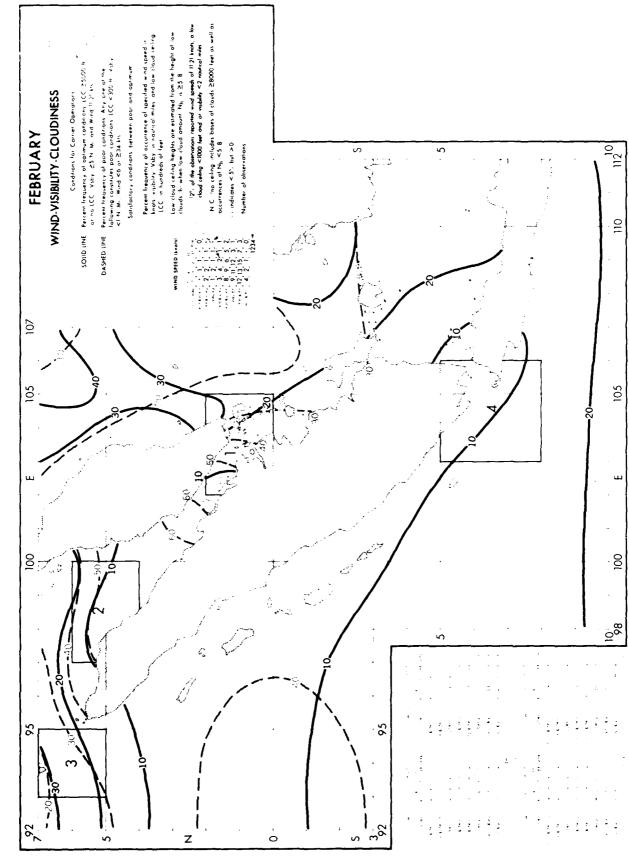


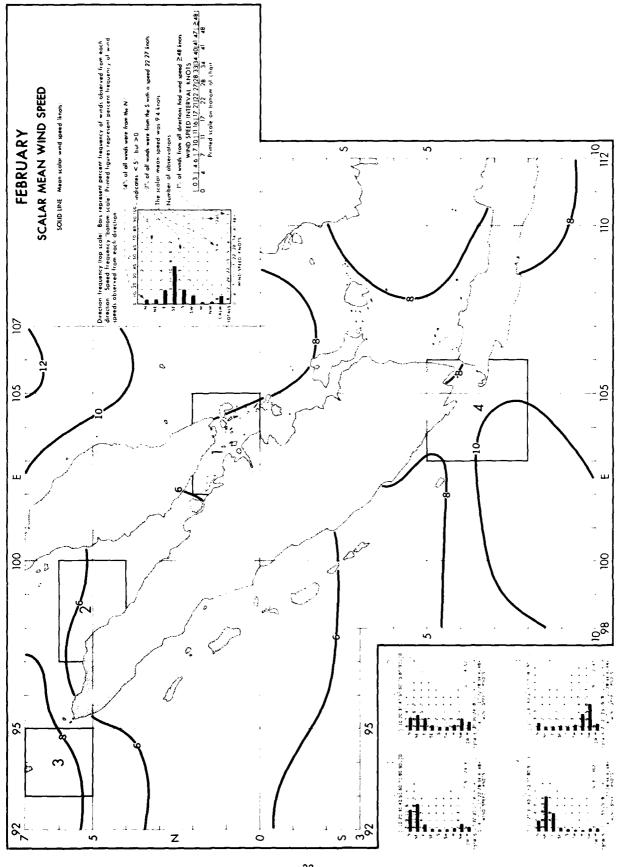


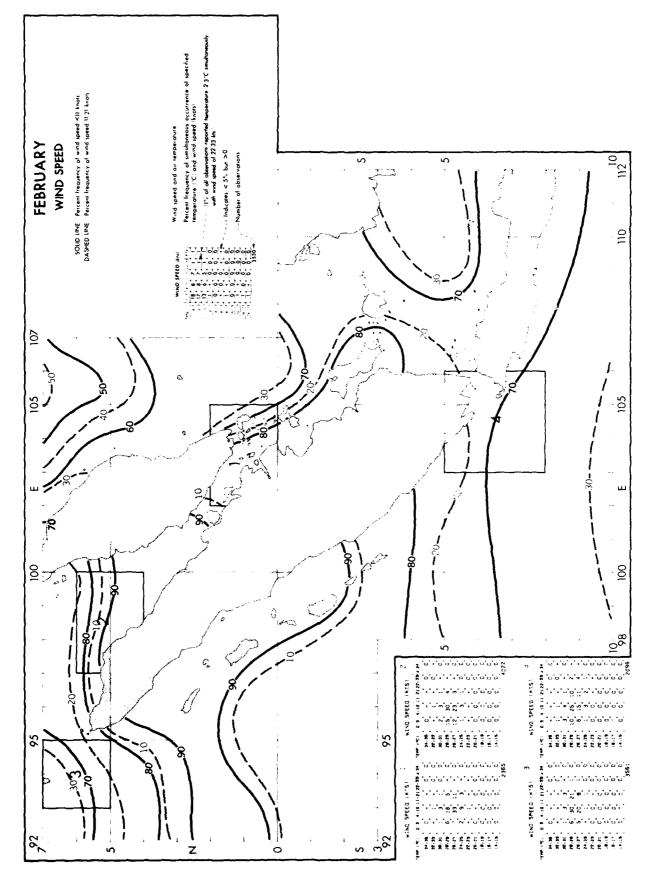


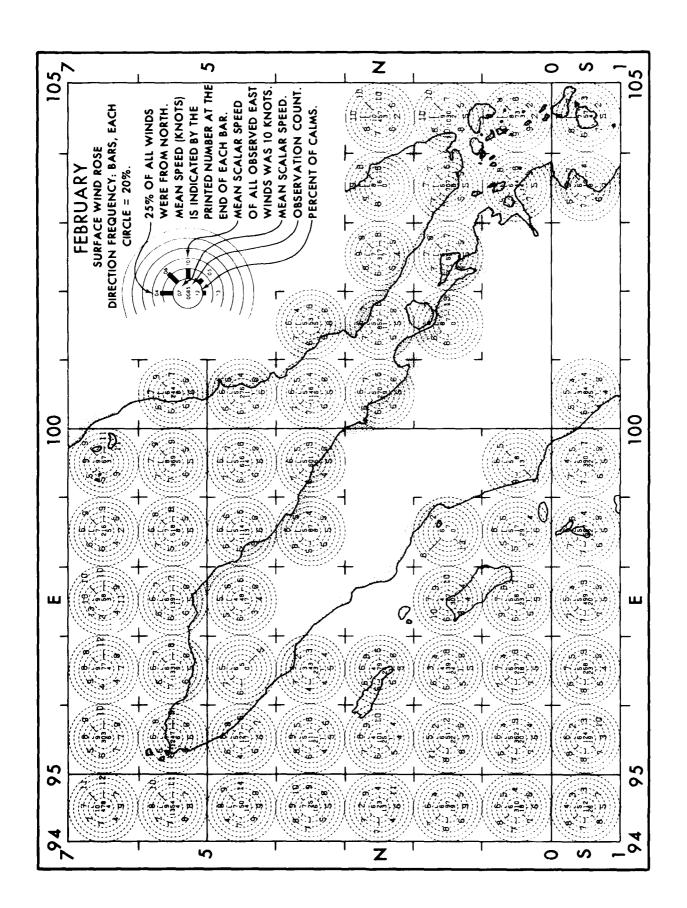


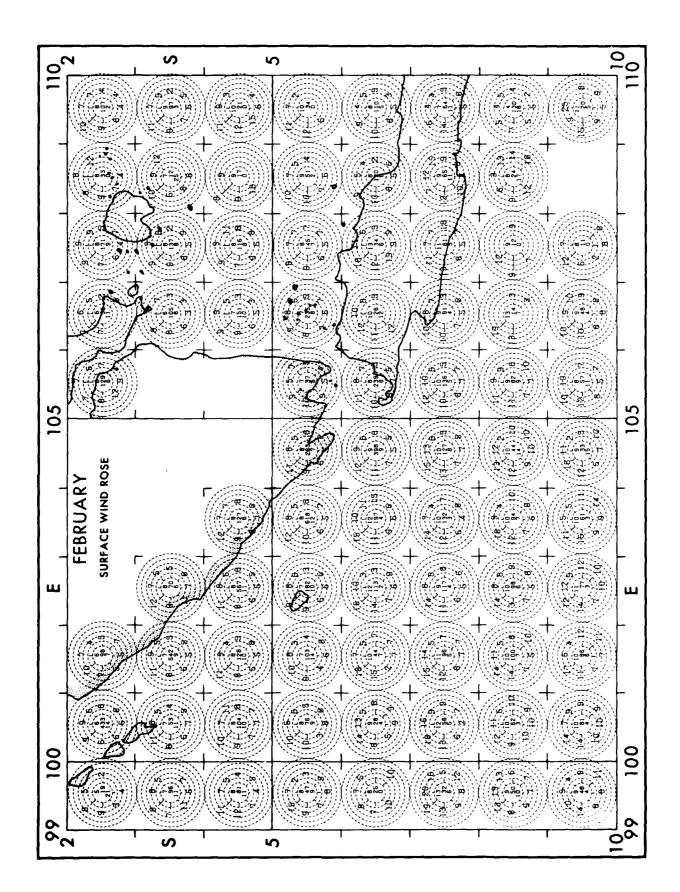


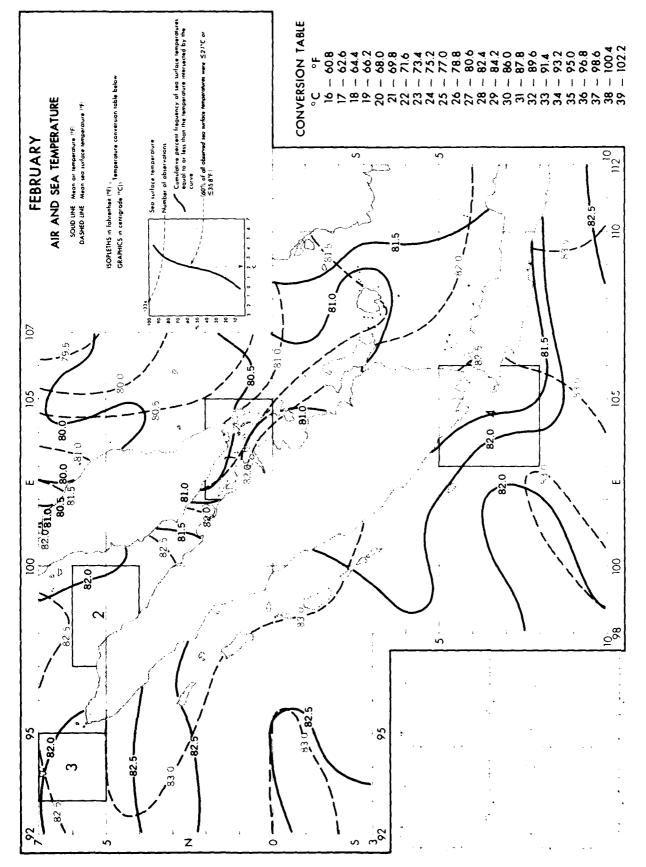


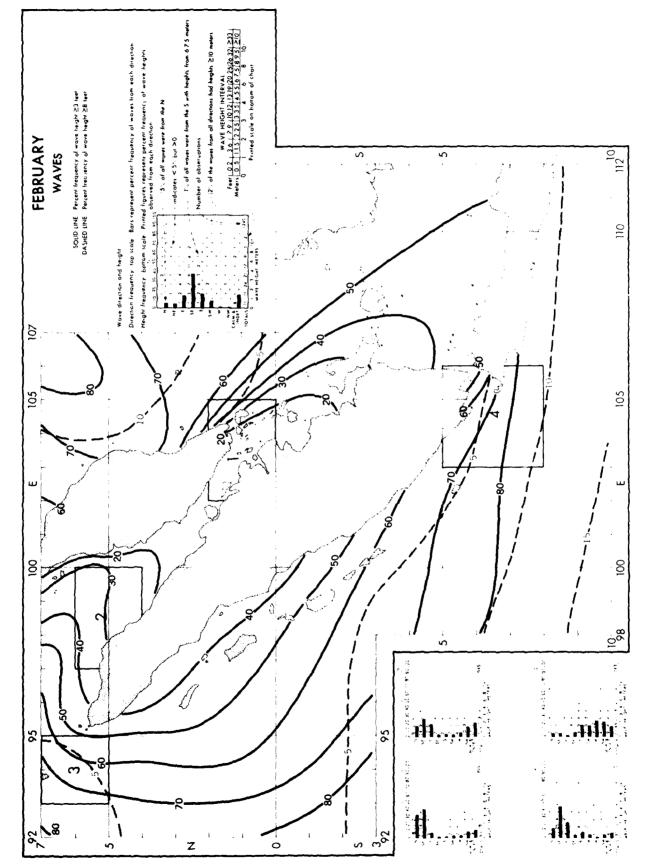


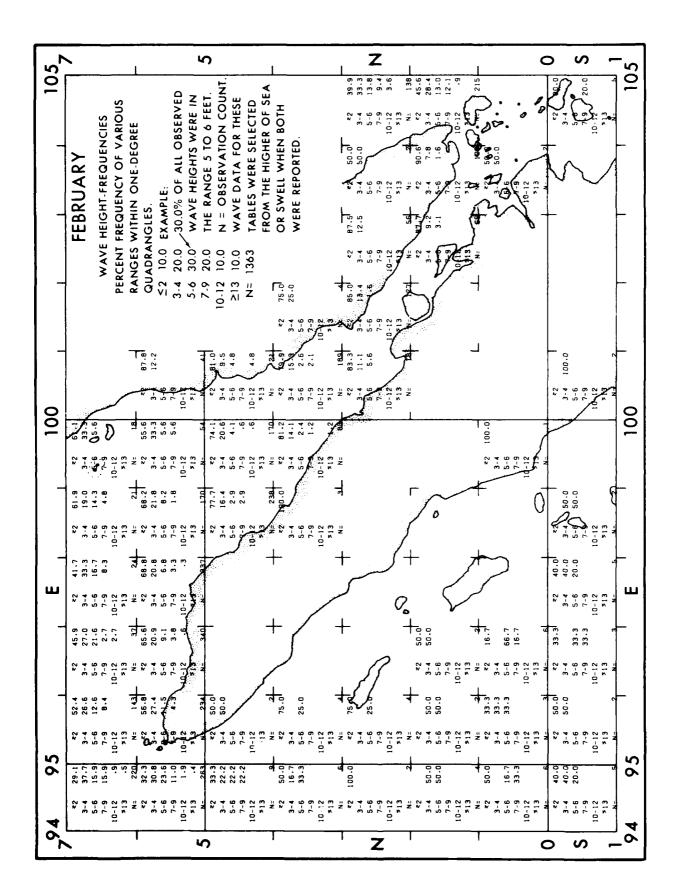


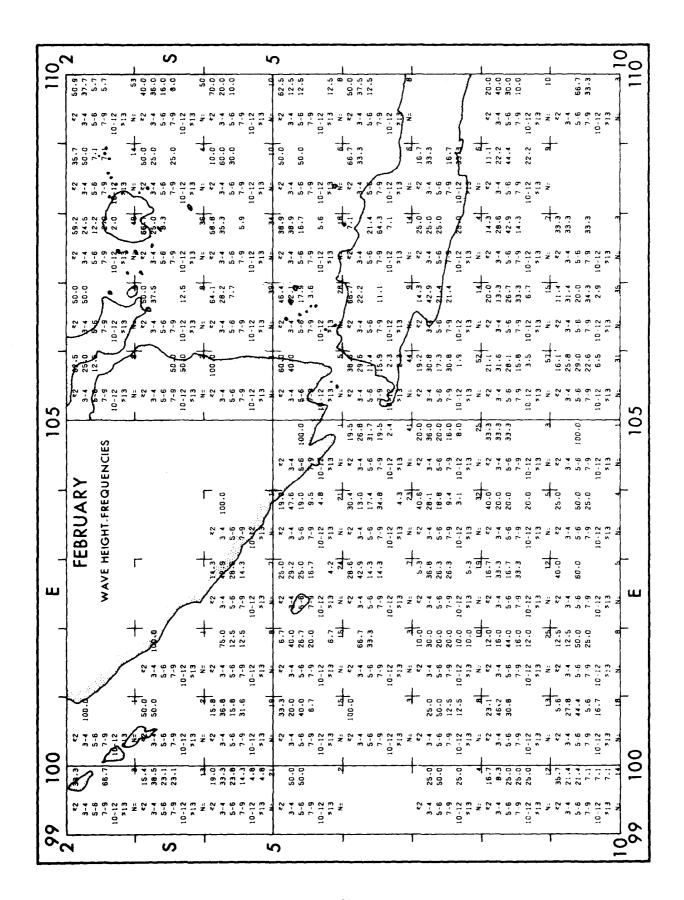


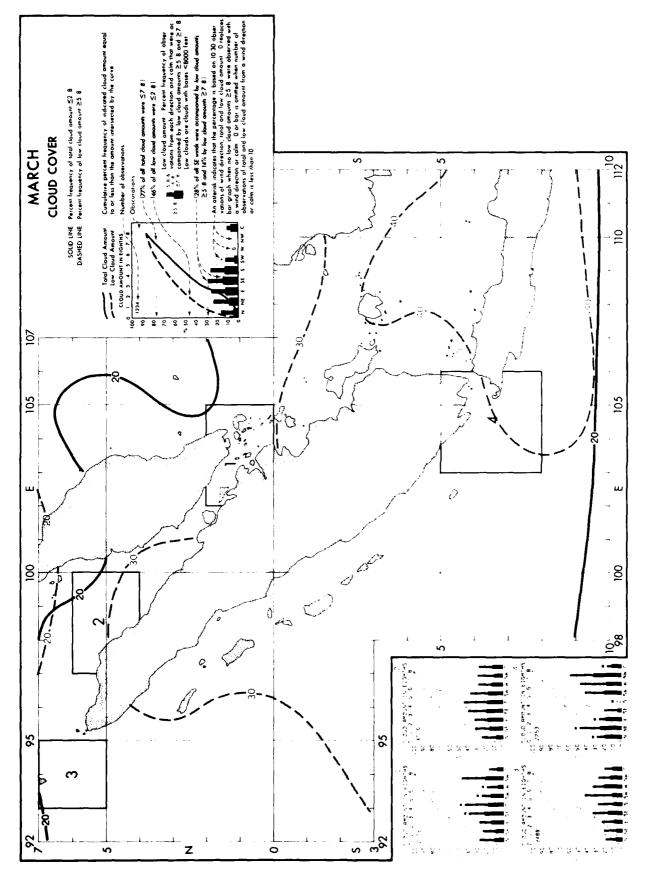


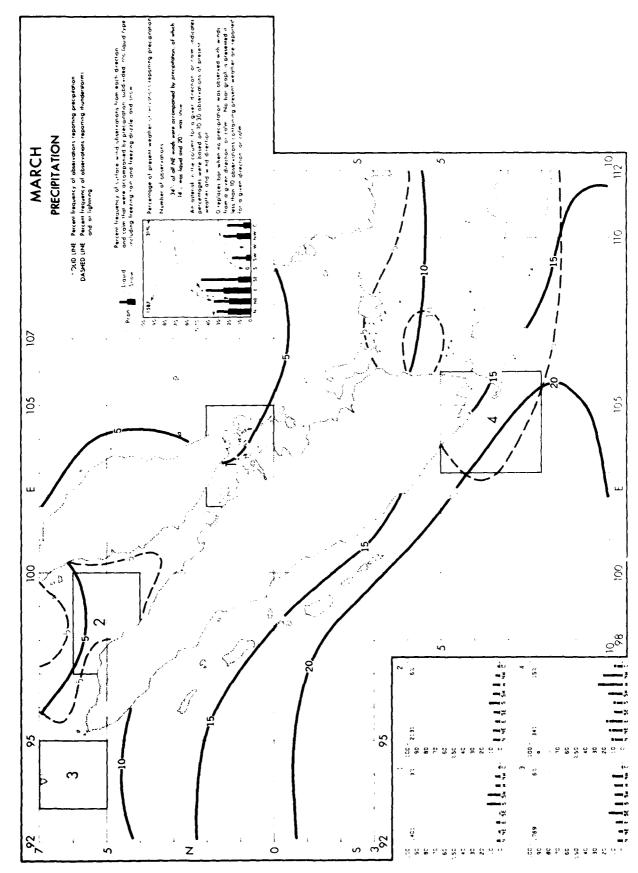


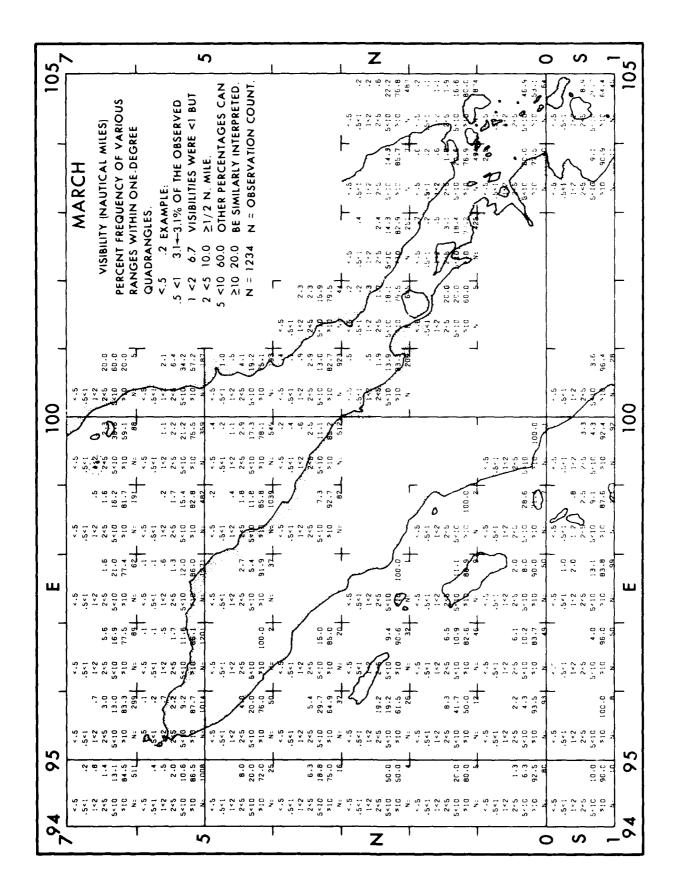


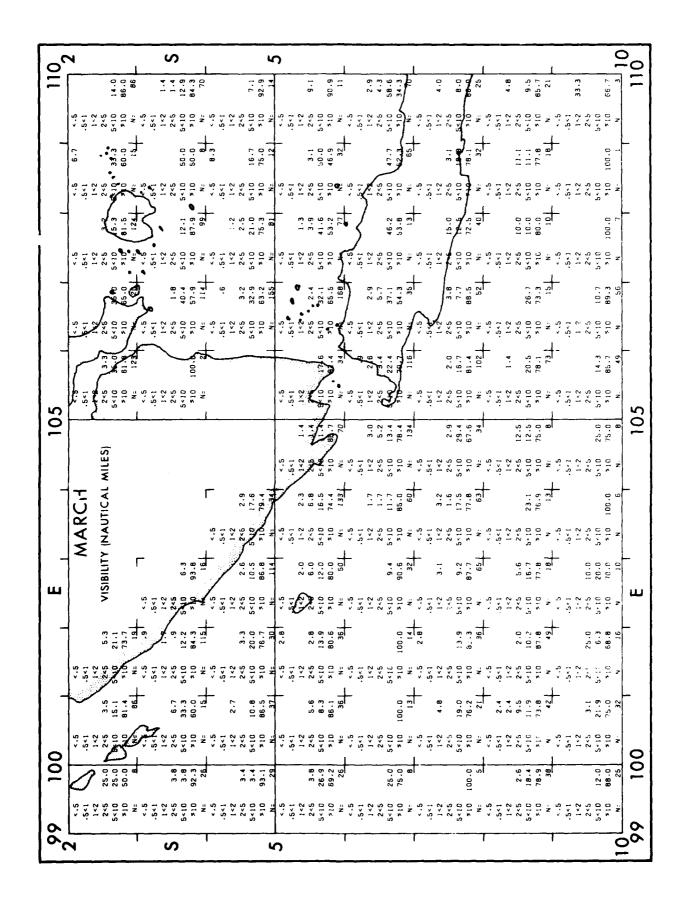


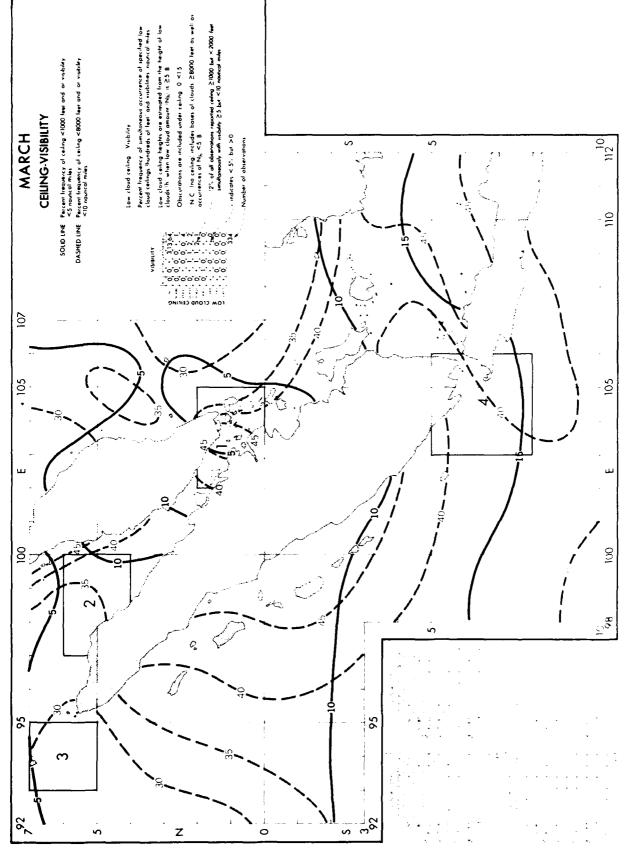


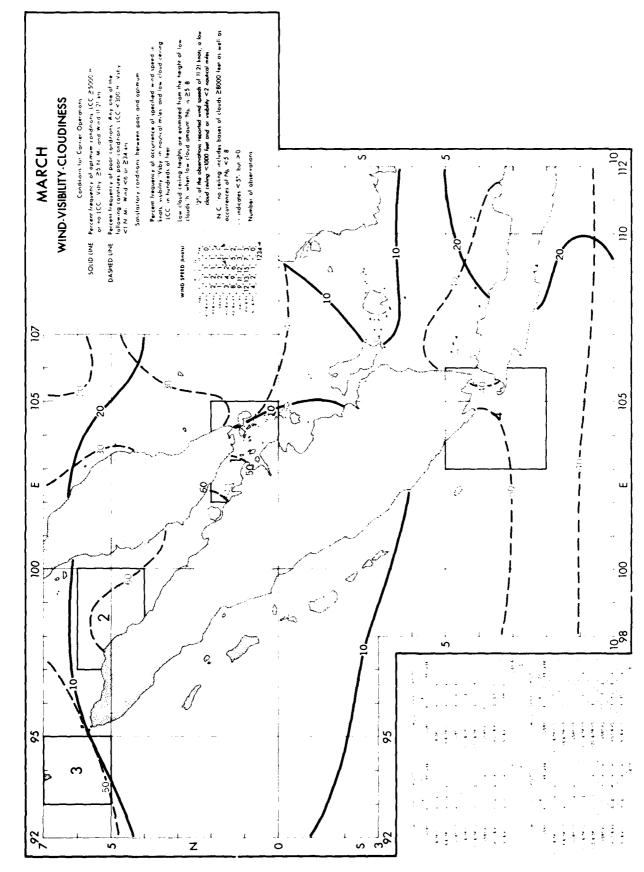


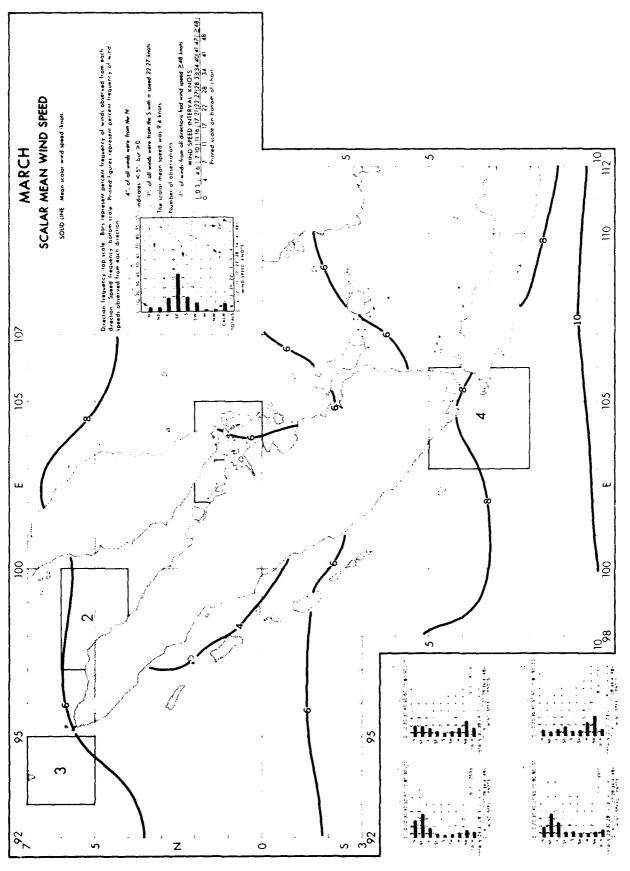


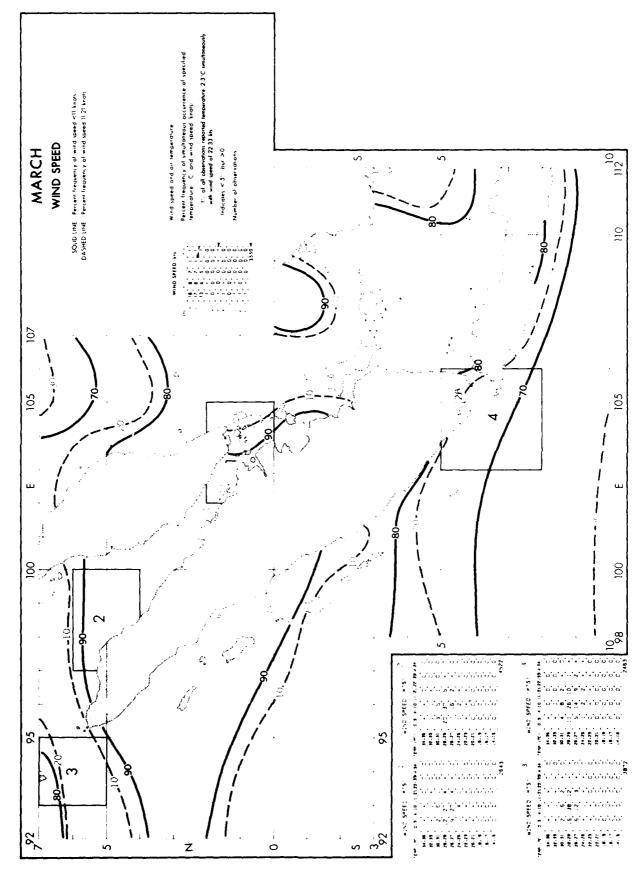


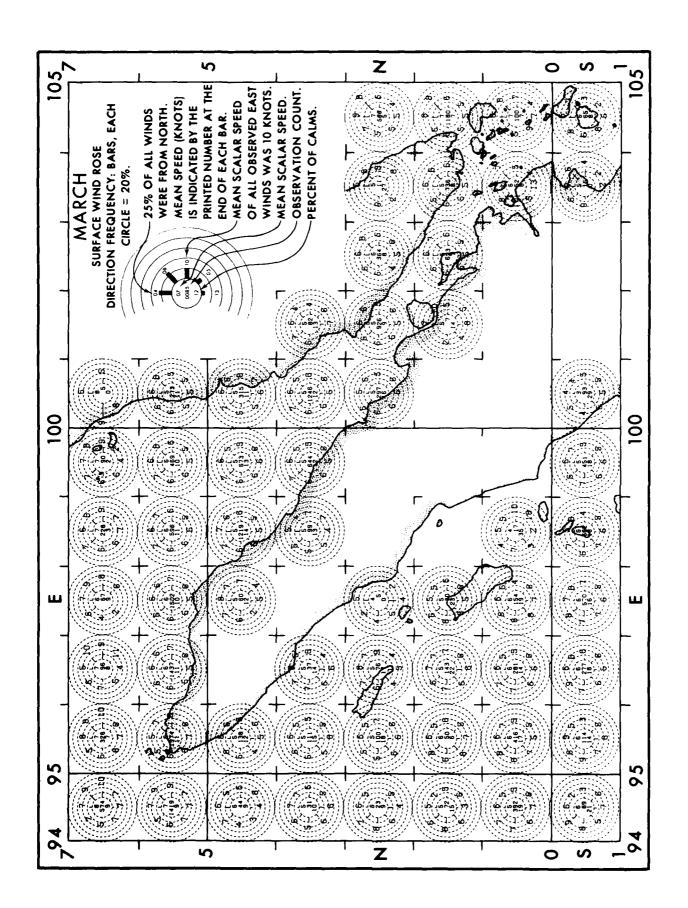


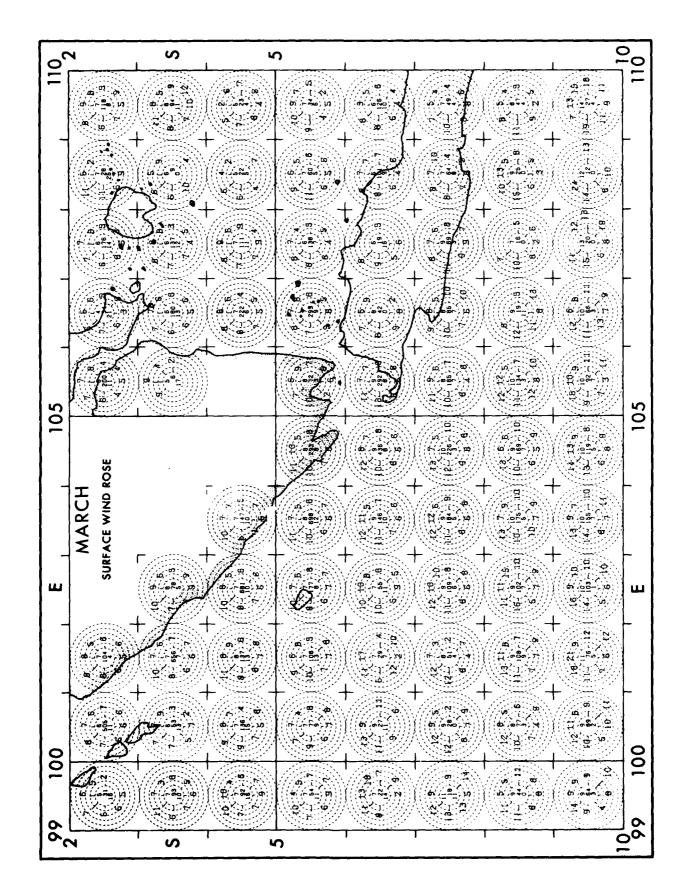


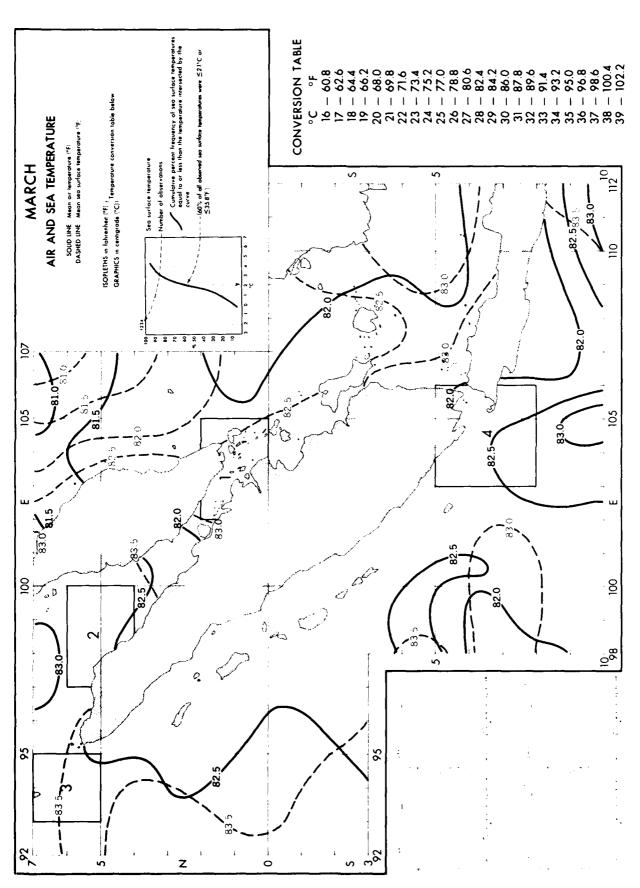


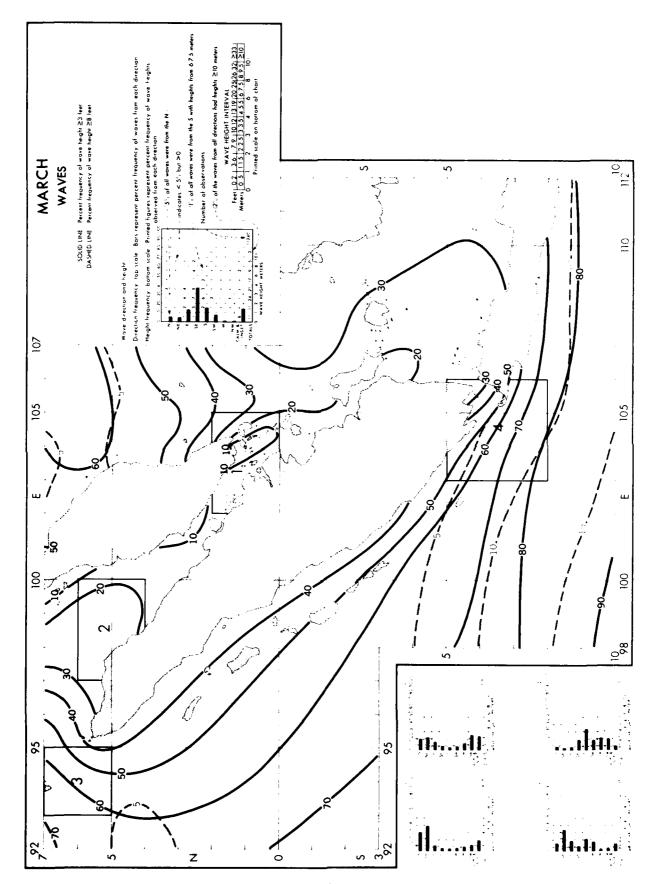


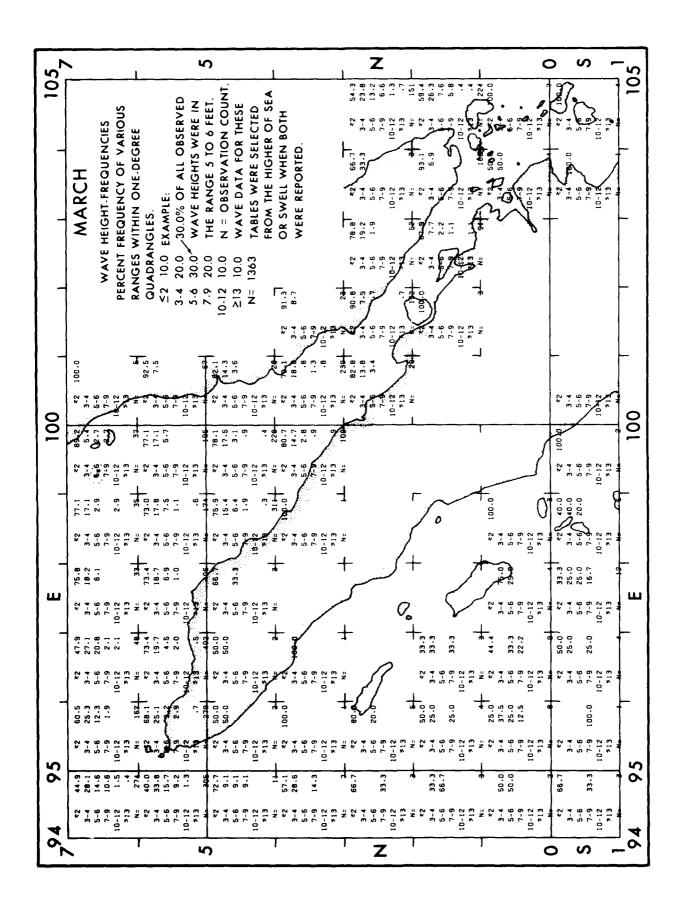


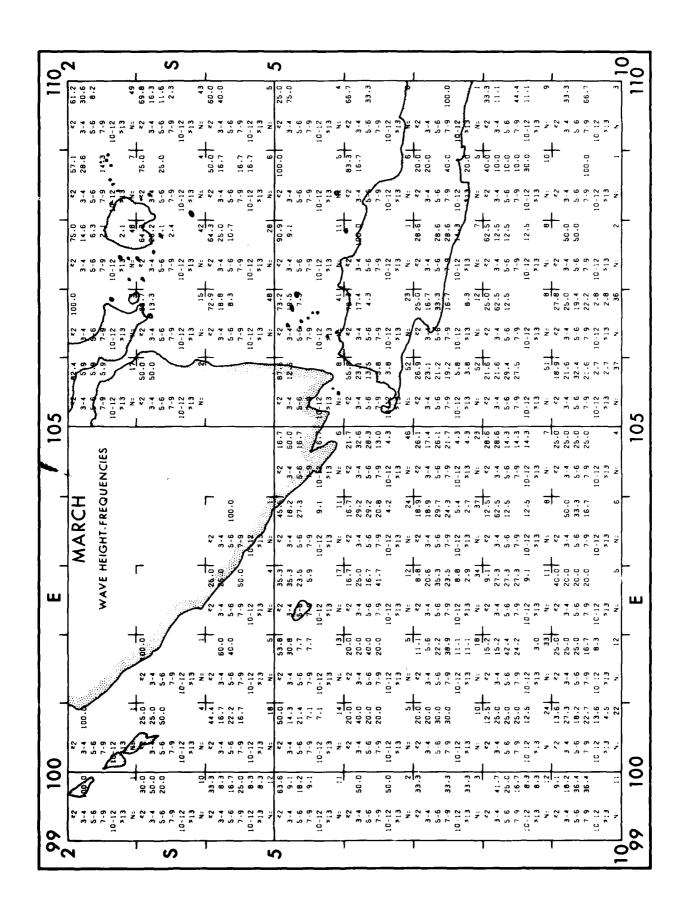


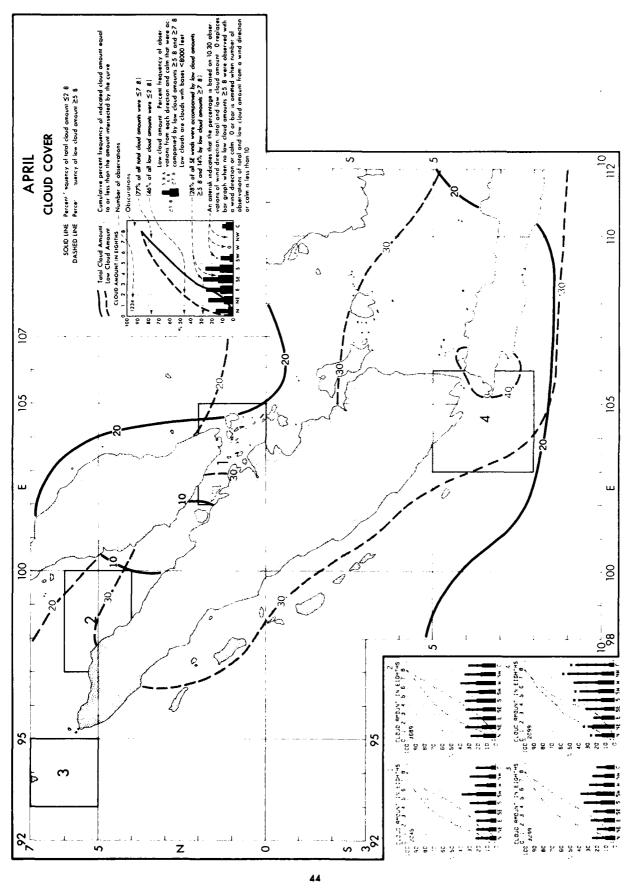


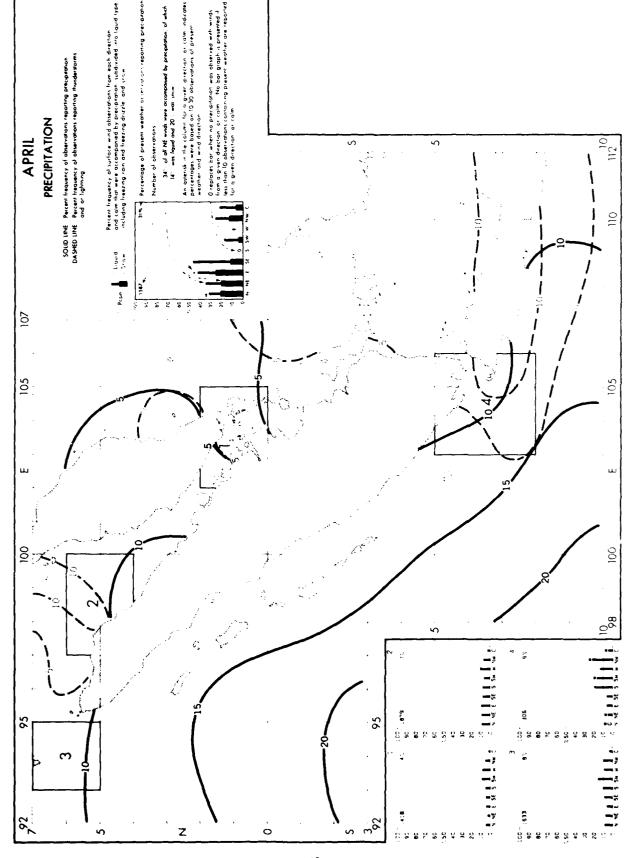


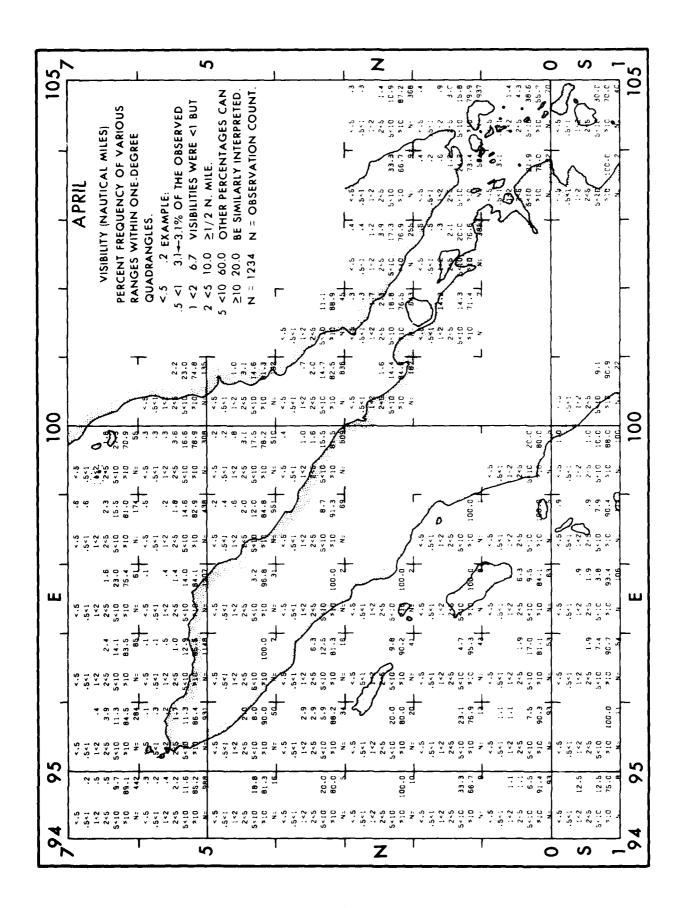


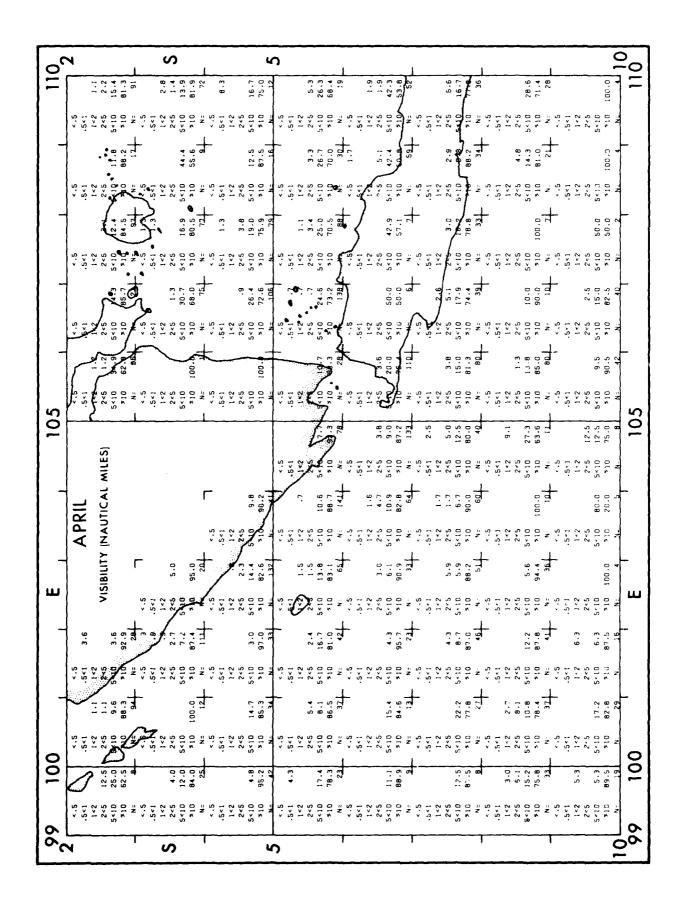


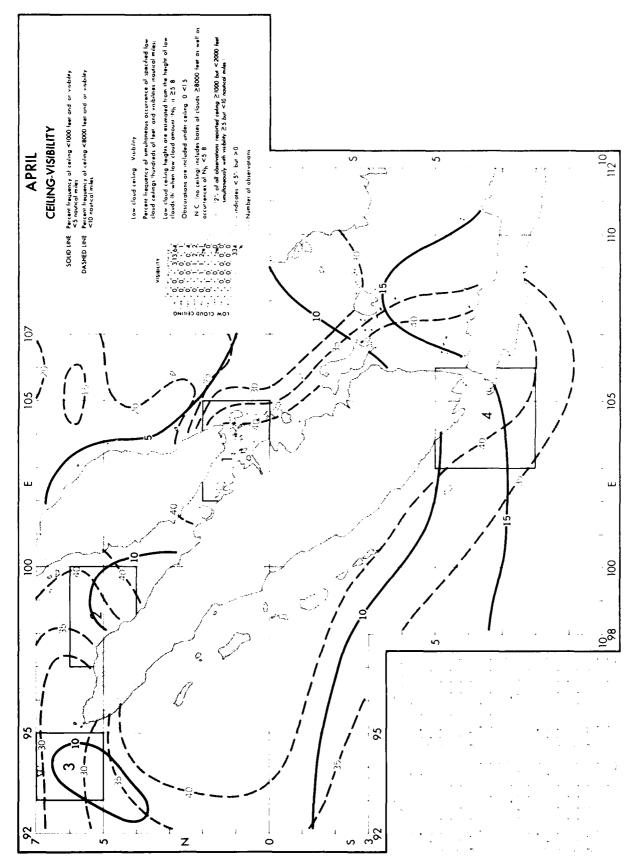


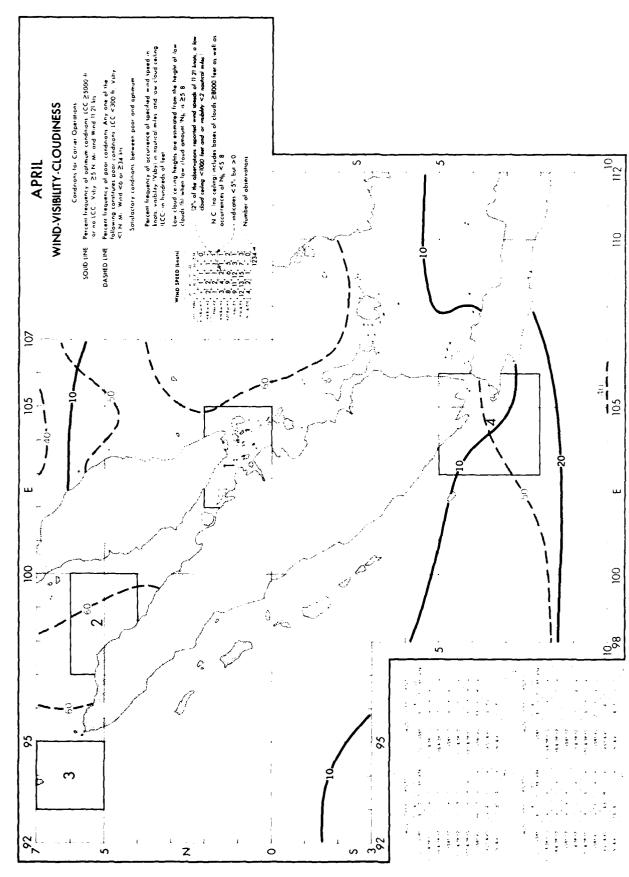


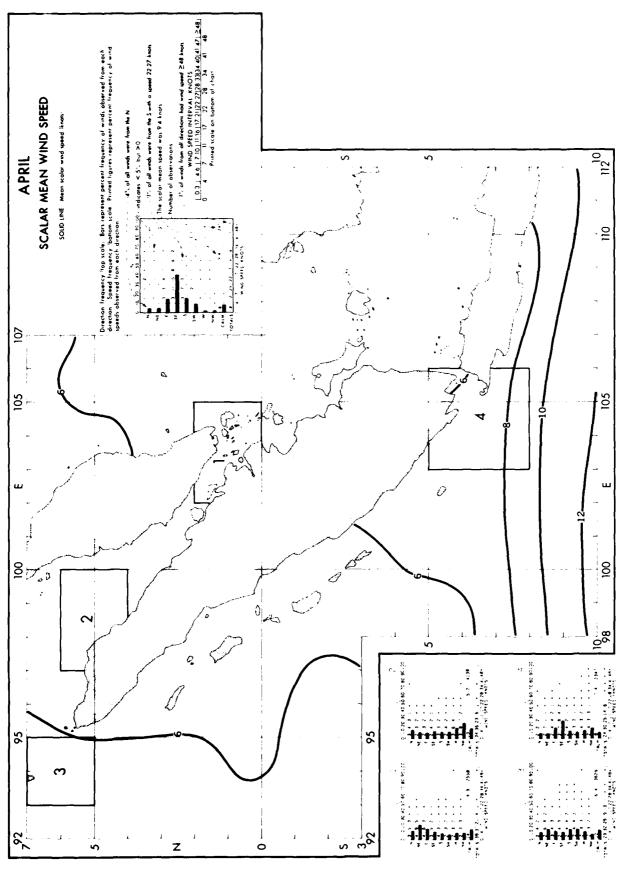


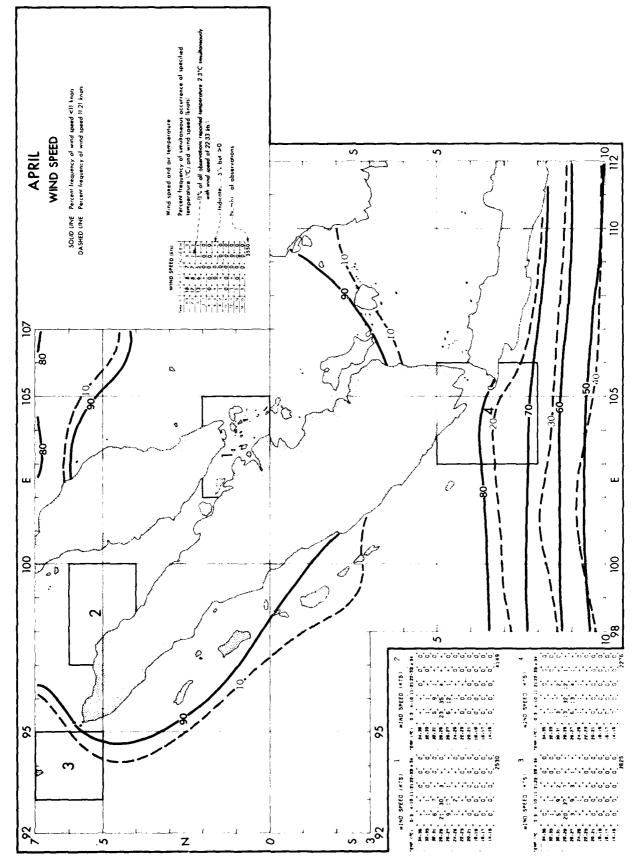


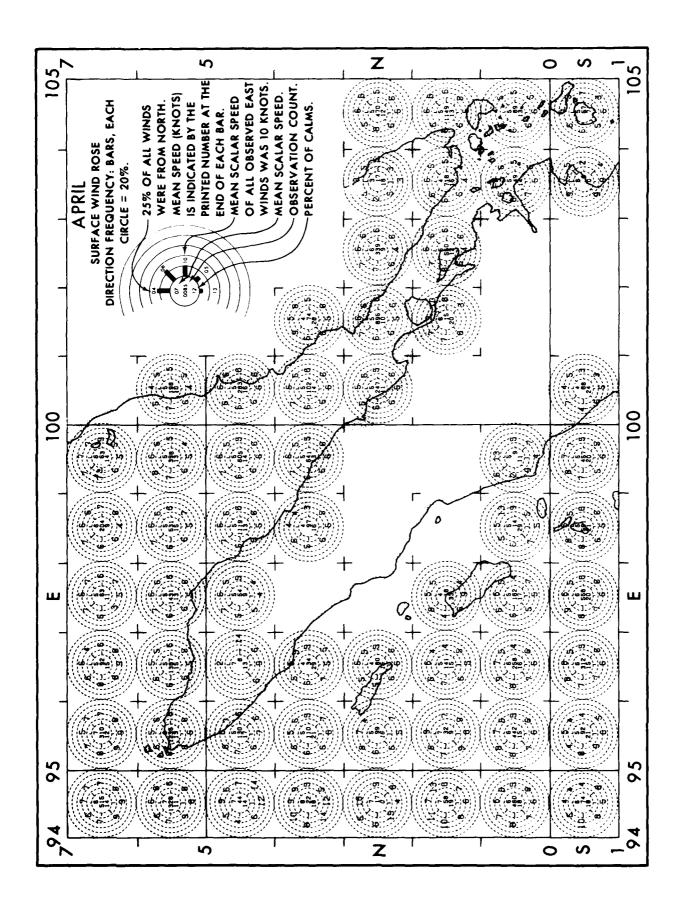


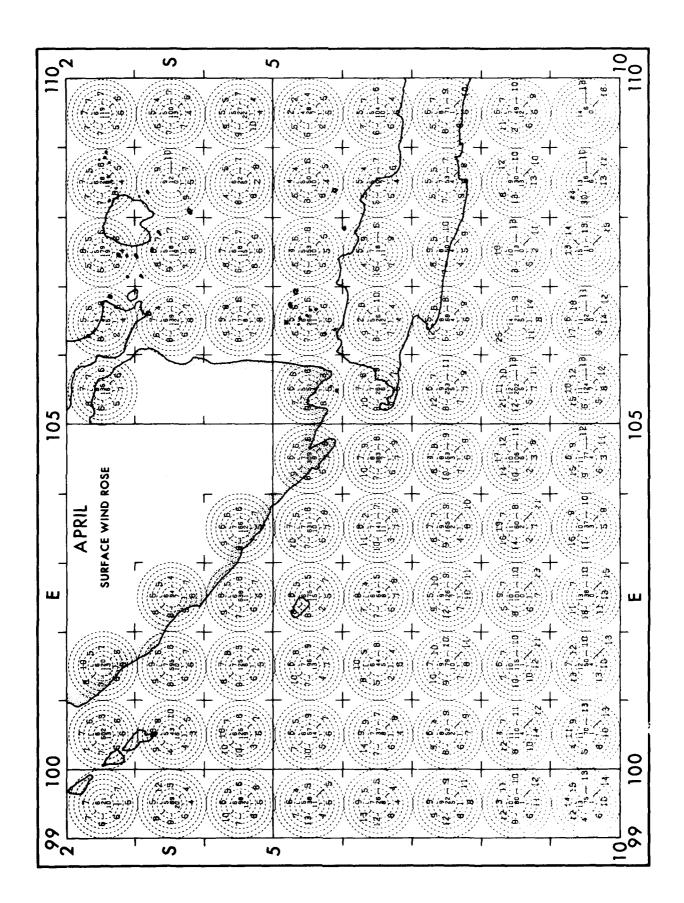


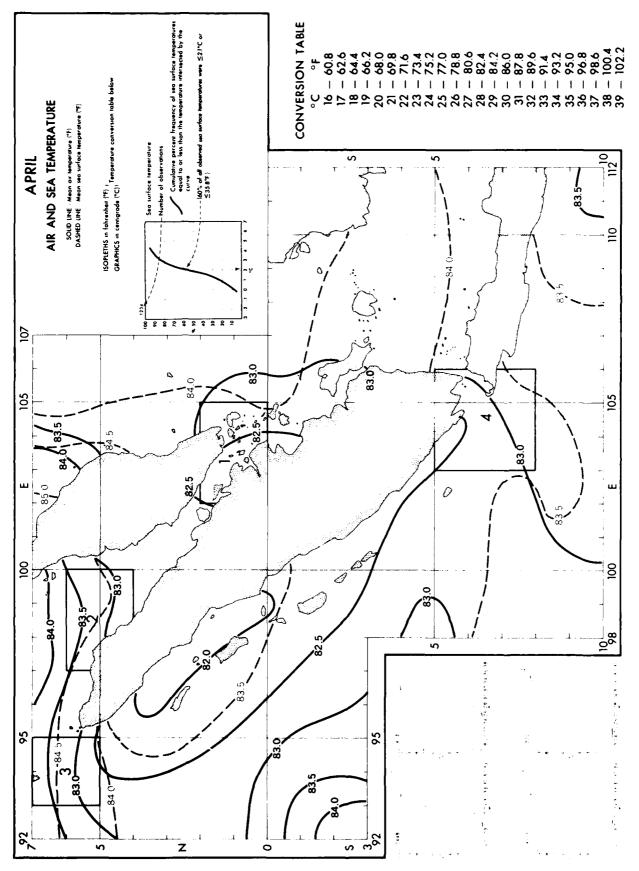


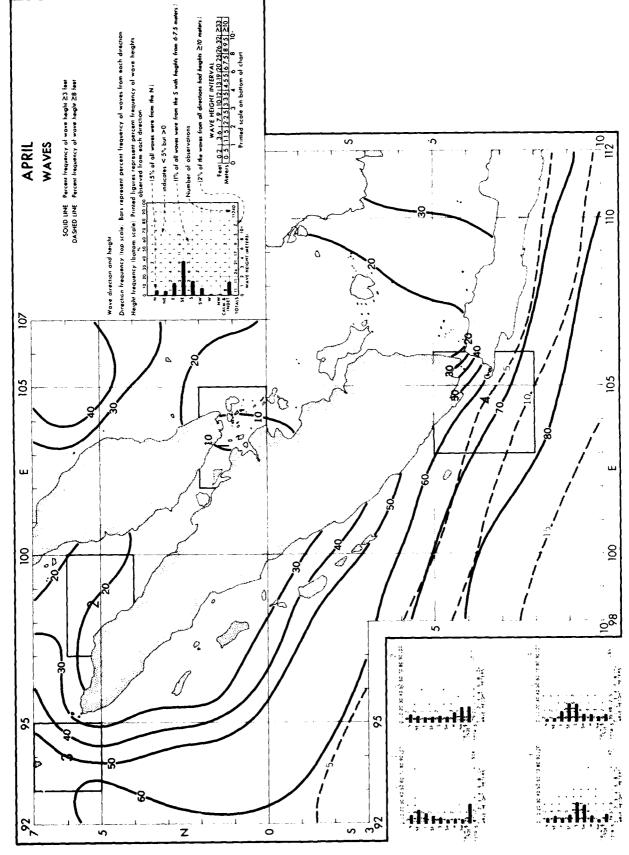


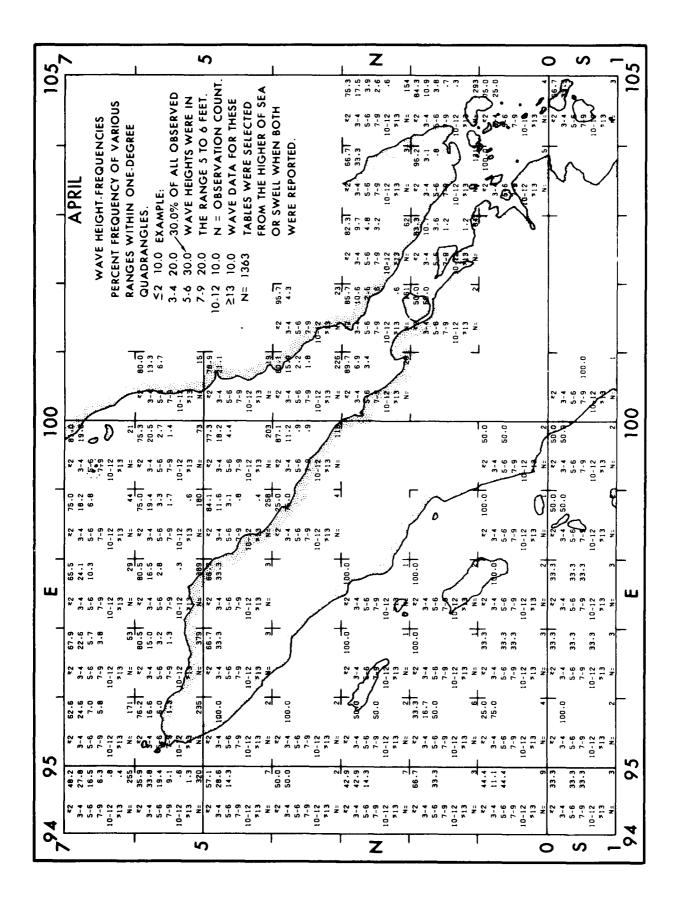


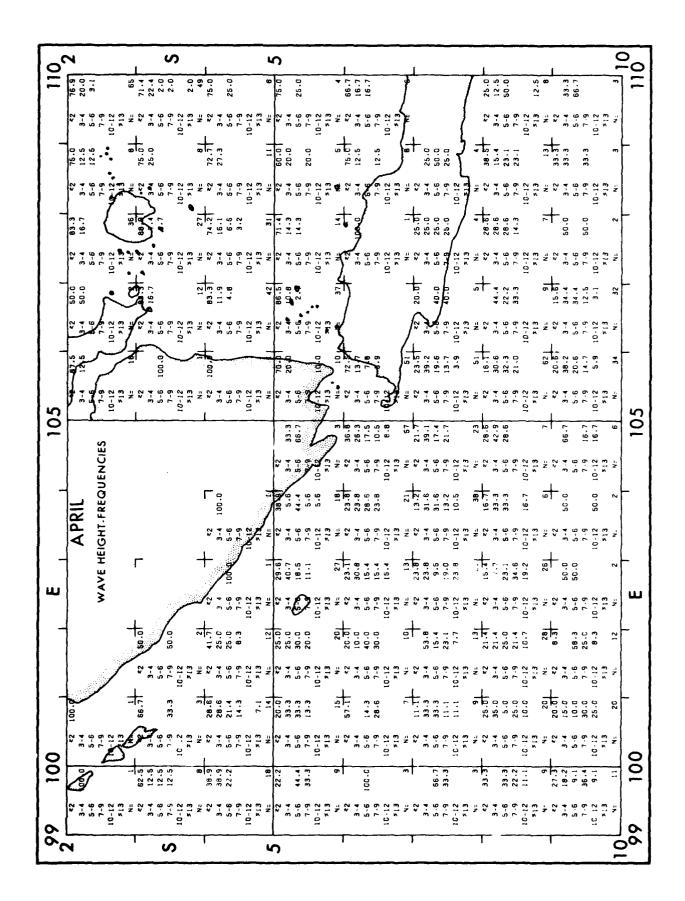


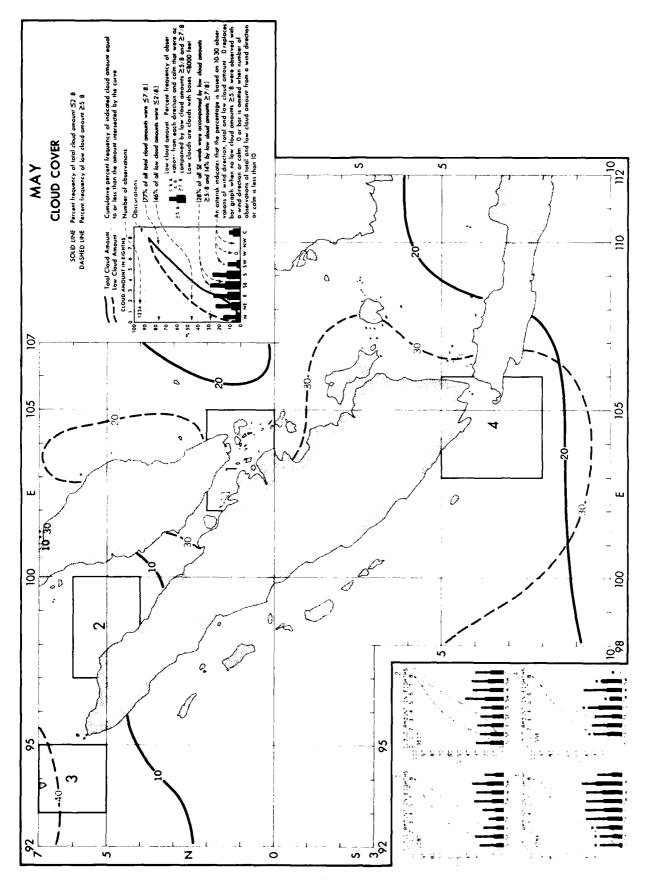


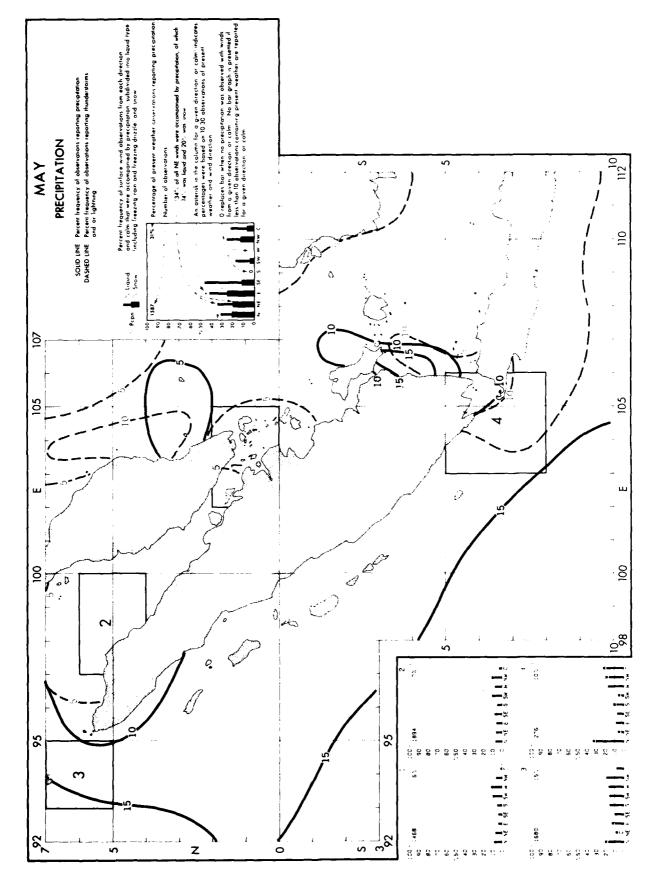


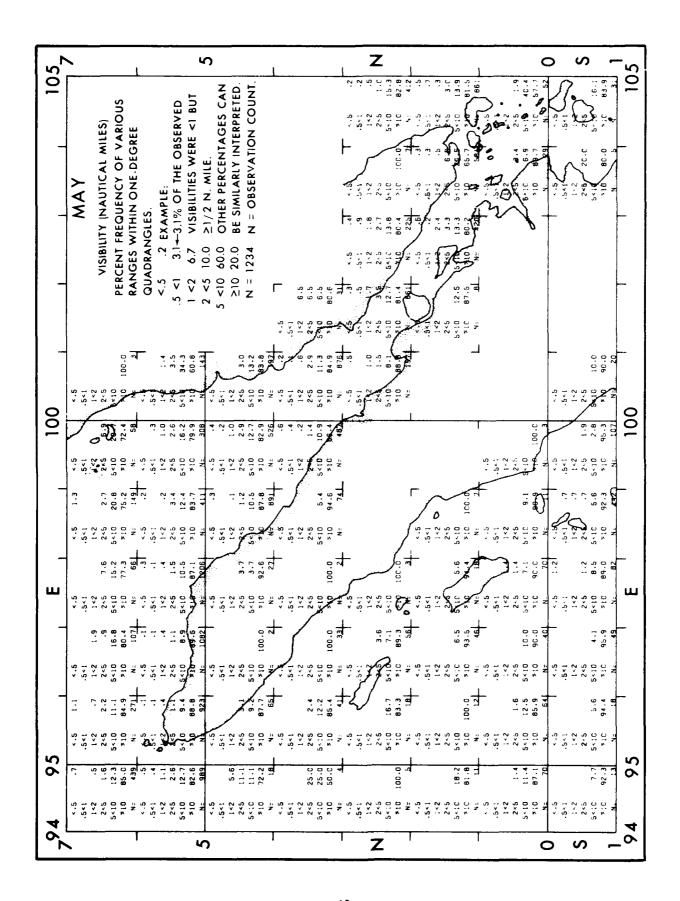


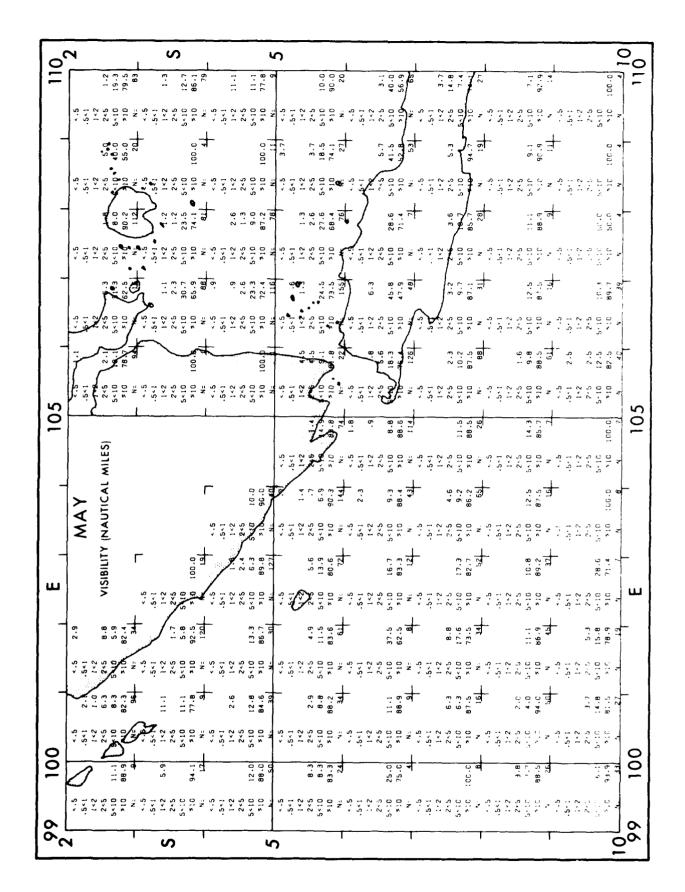


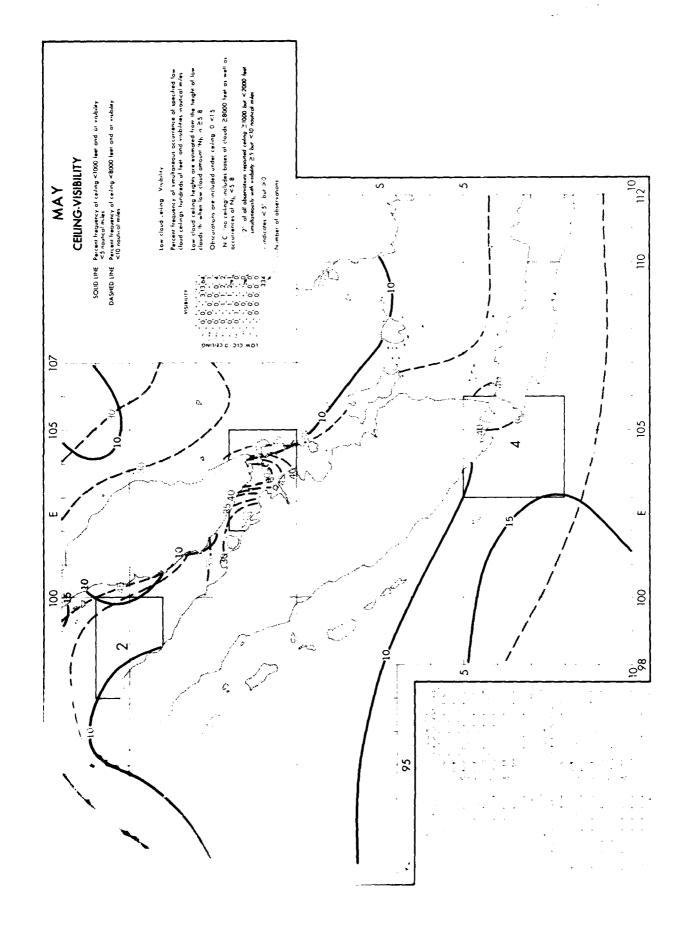


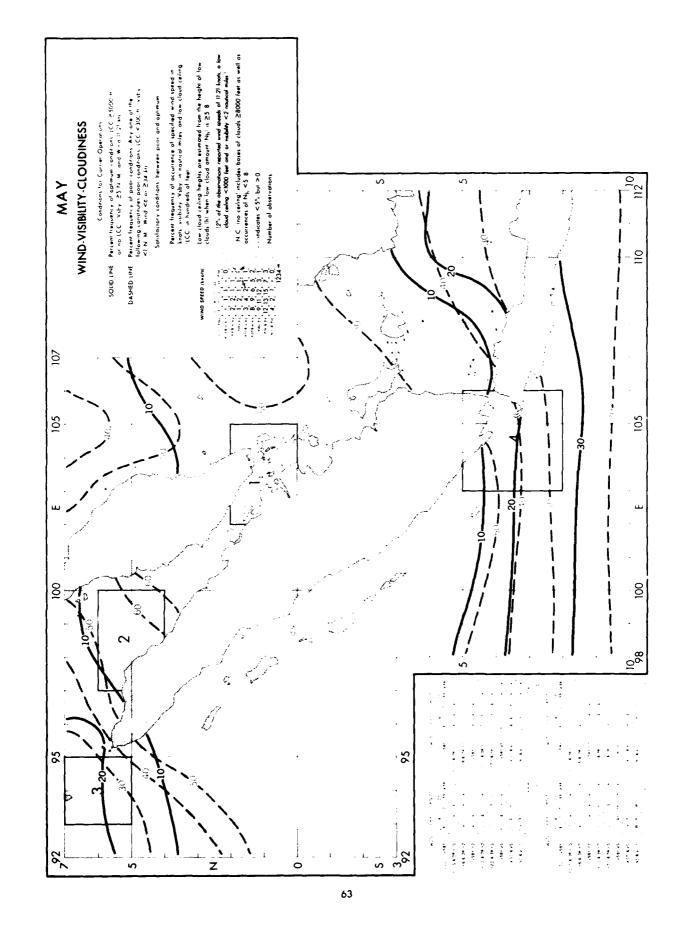


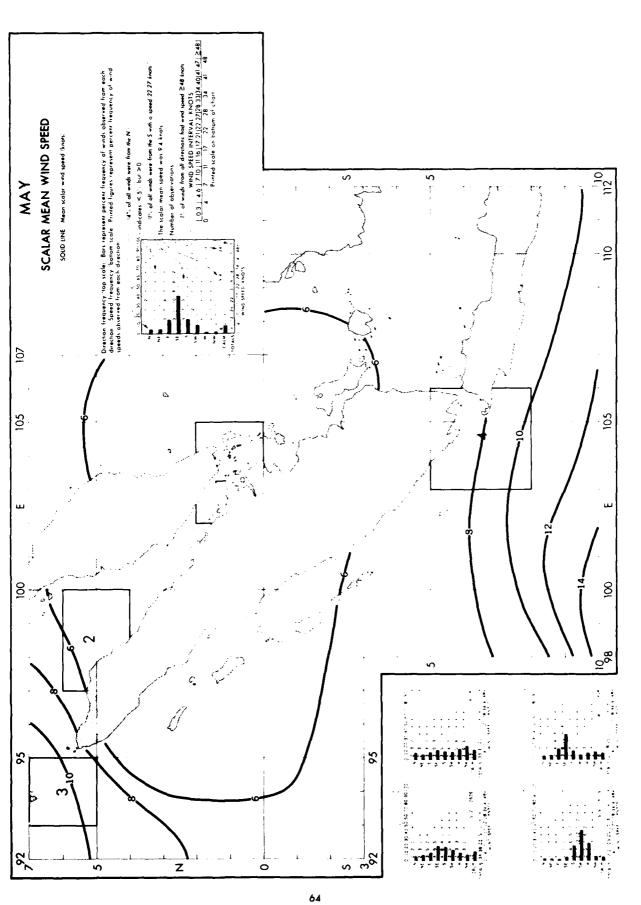


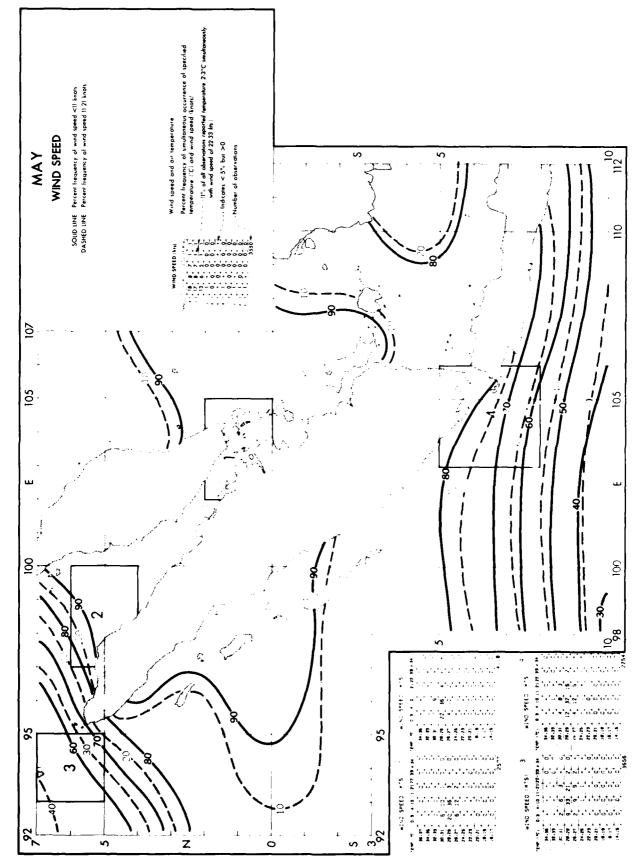


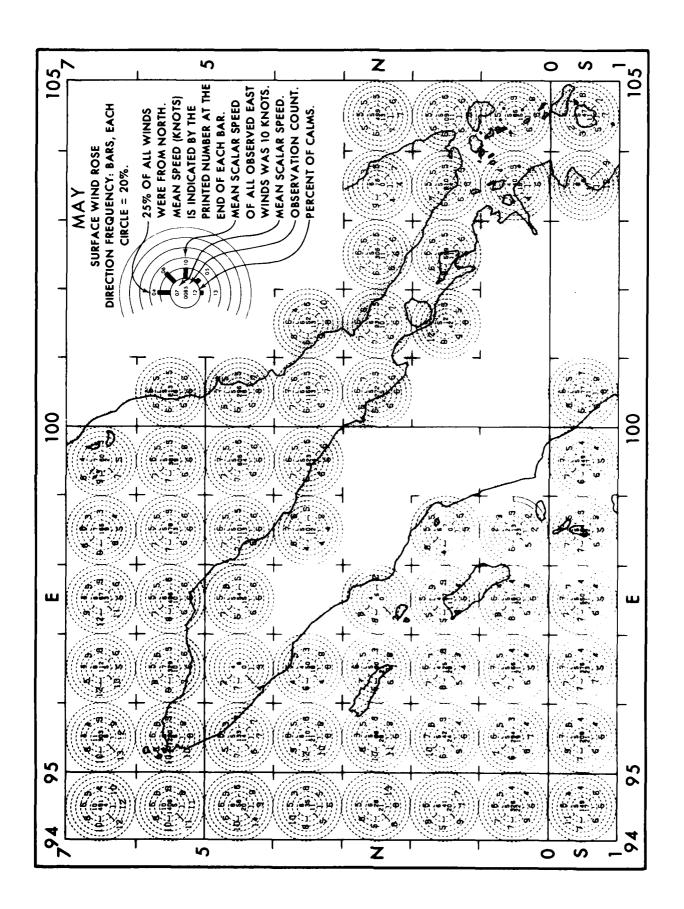


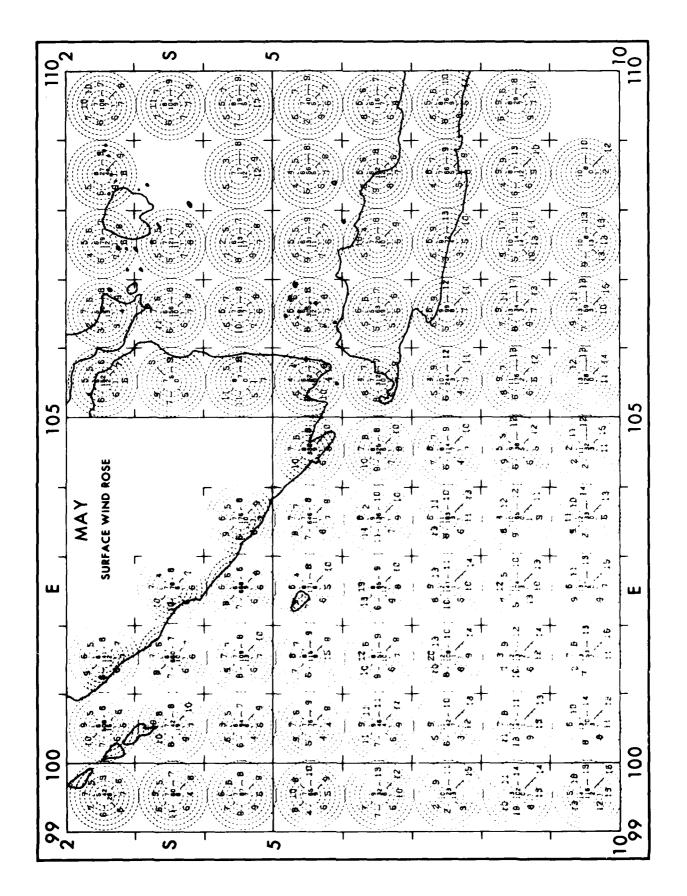


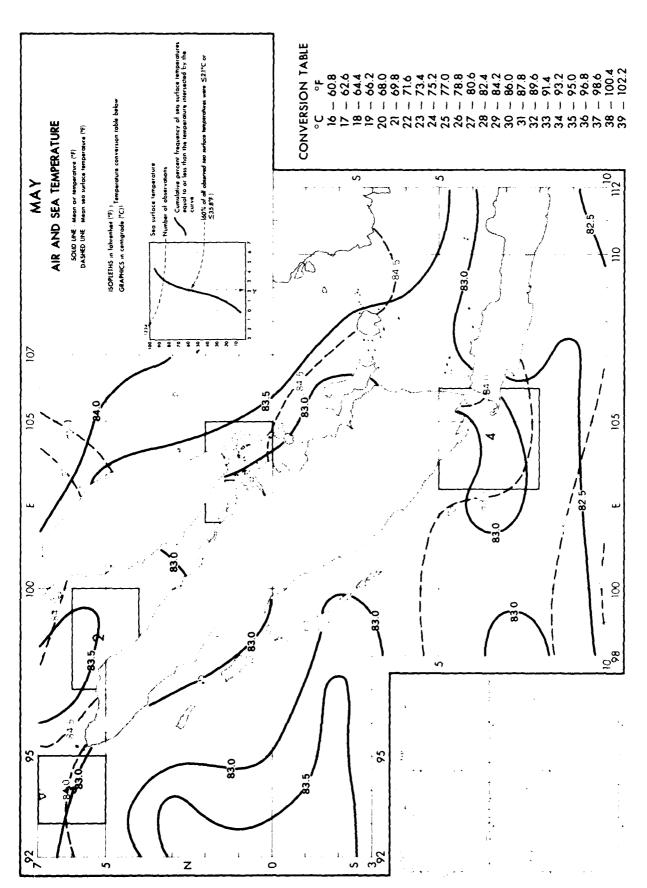


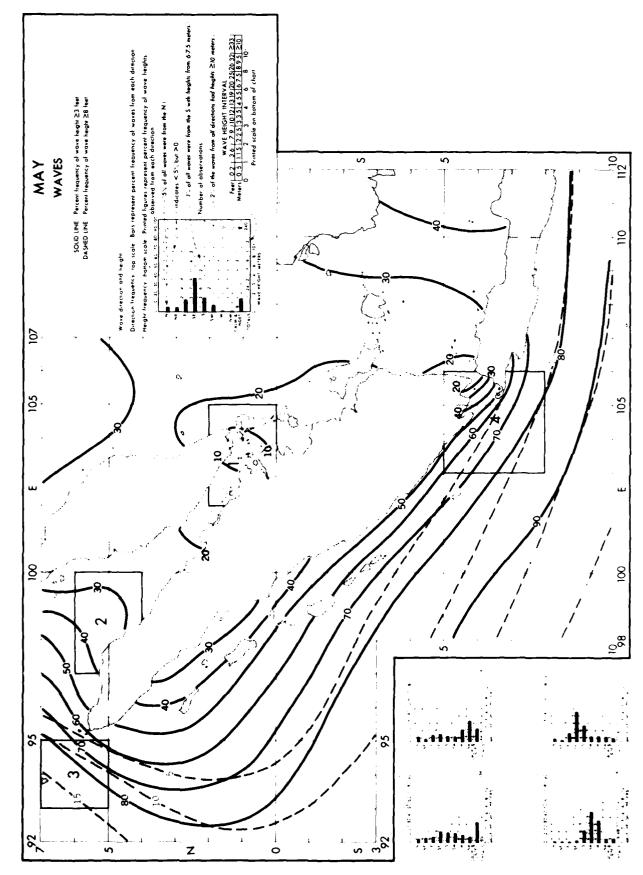


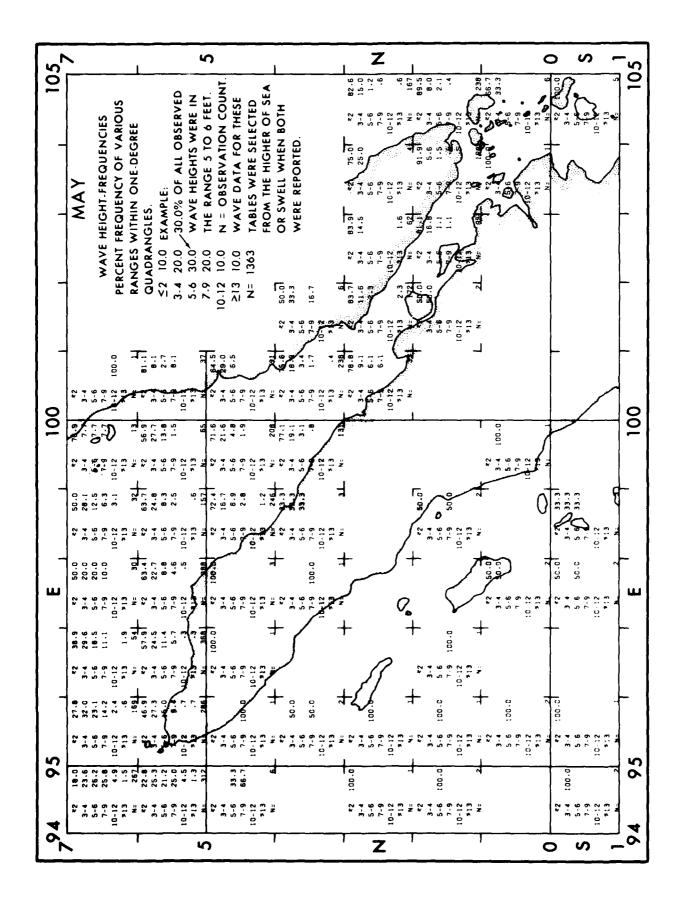


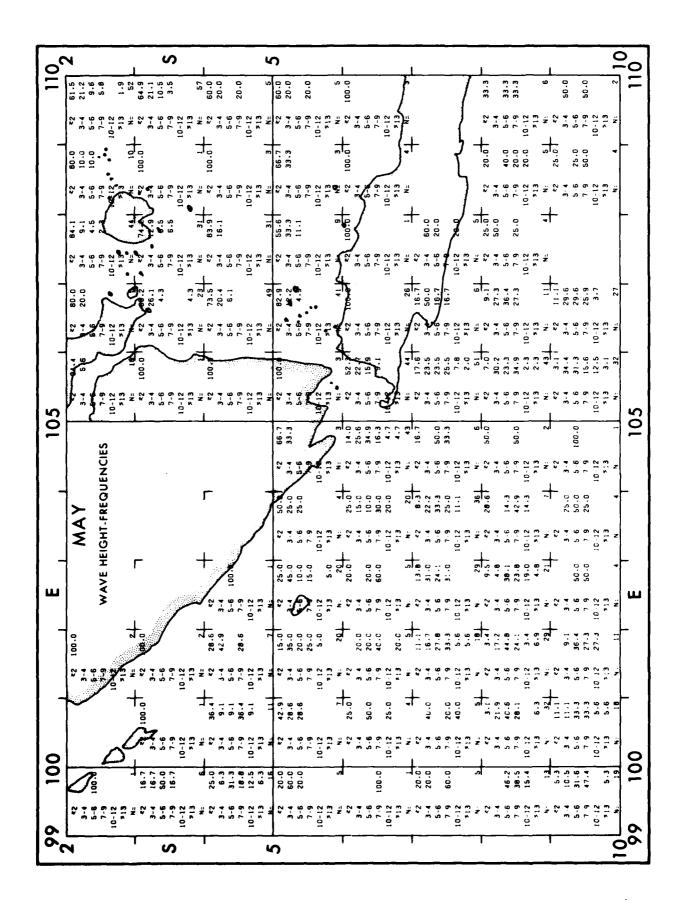


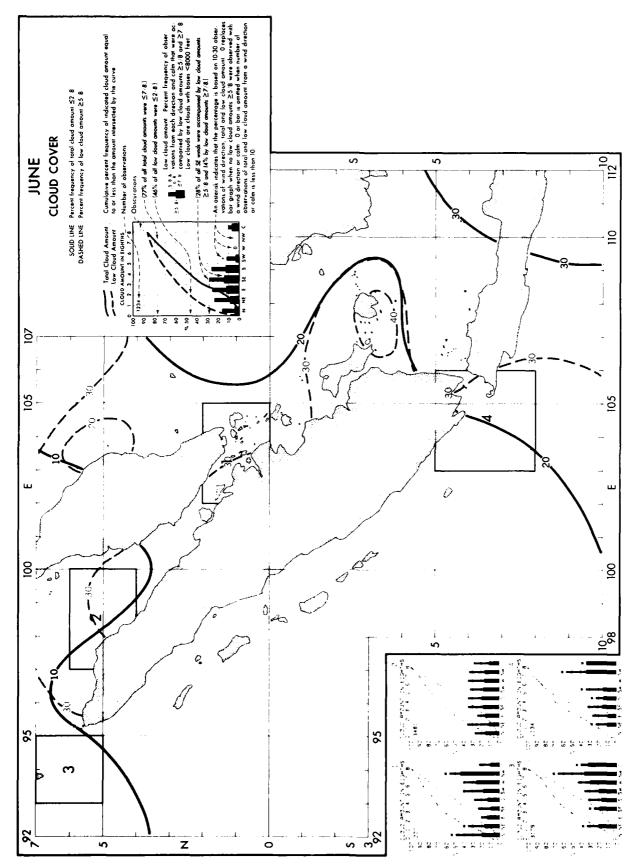


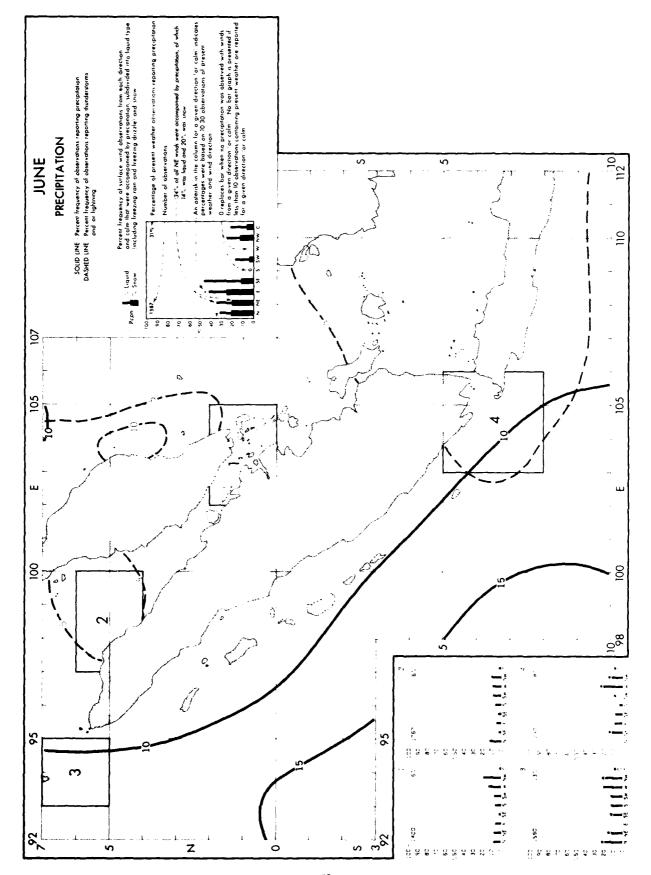


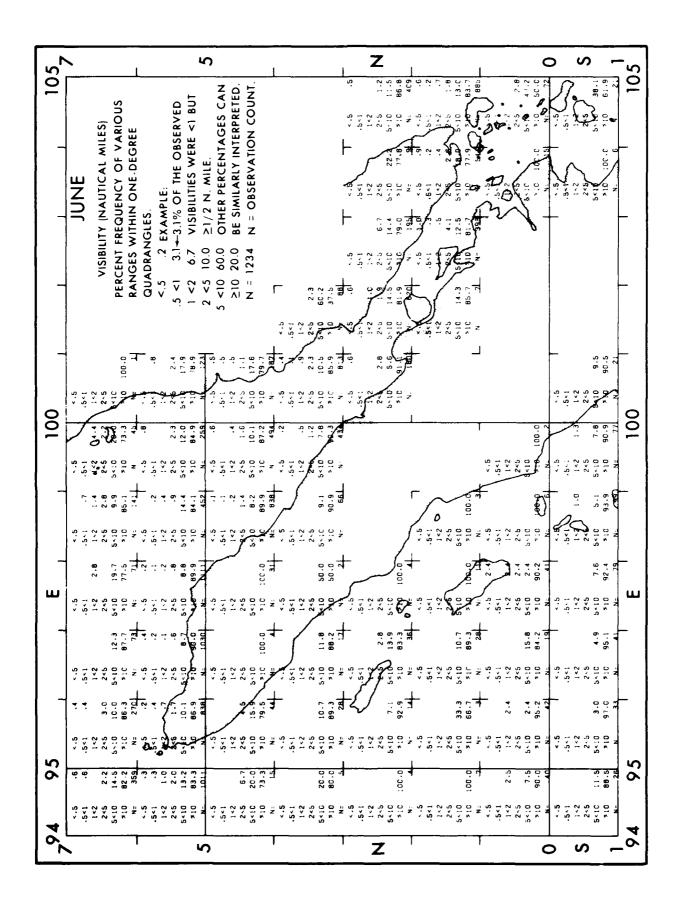


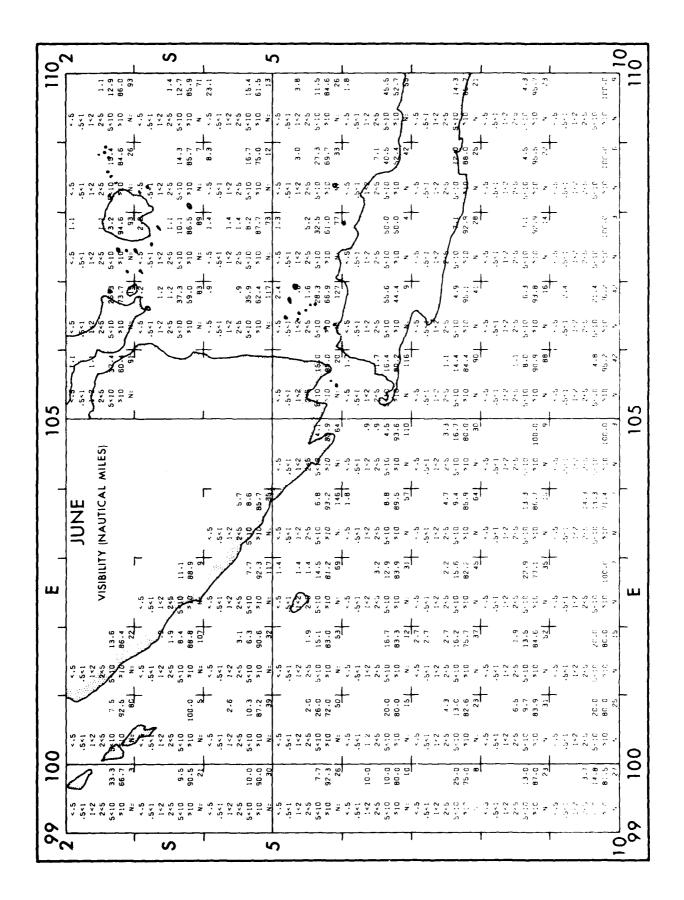






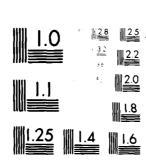






NAVAL OCEANOGRAPHY COMMAND DETACHMENT ASHEVILLE NC F/G 4/2 CLIMATIC STUDY OF THE MALACCA AND SUNDA STRAITS, NEAR COASTAL Z--ETC(U) APR 82 AD-A115 323 UNCLASSIFIED ·NL 2 of **3**

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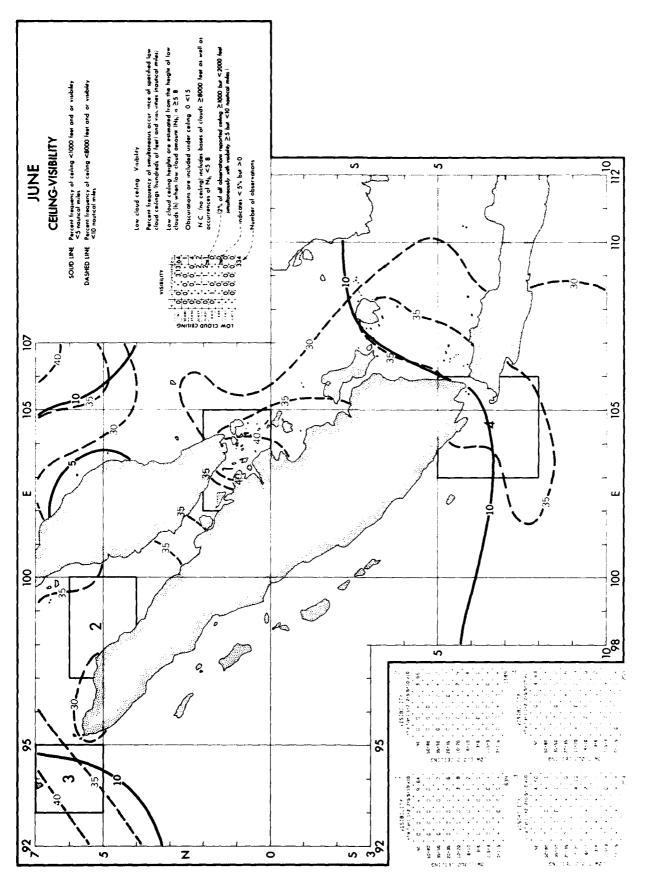


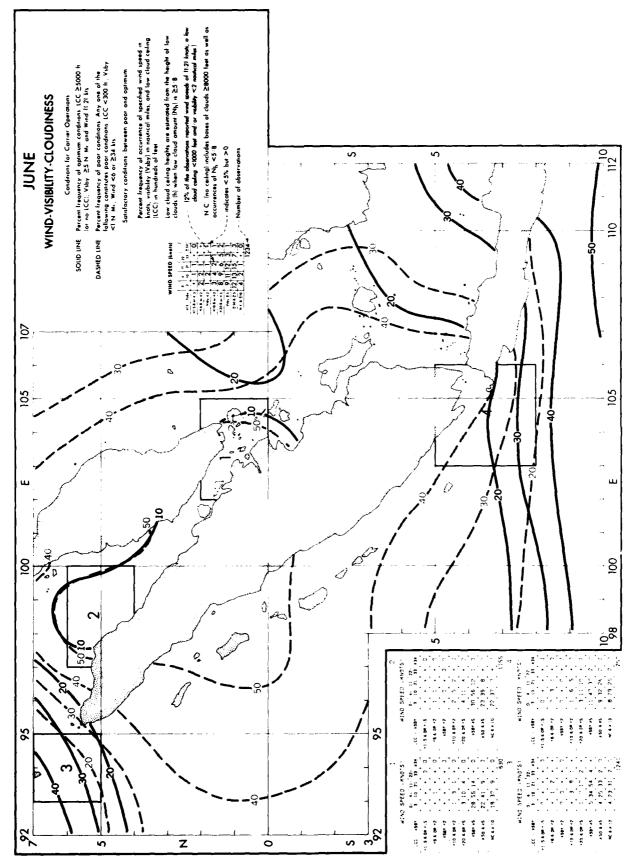
MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART

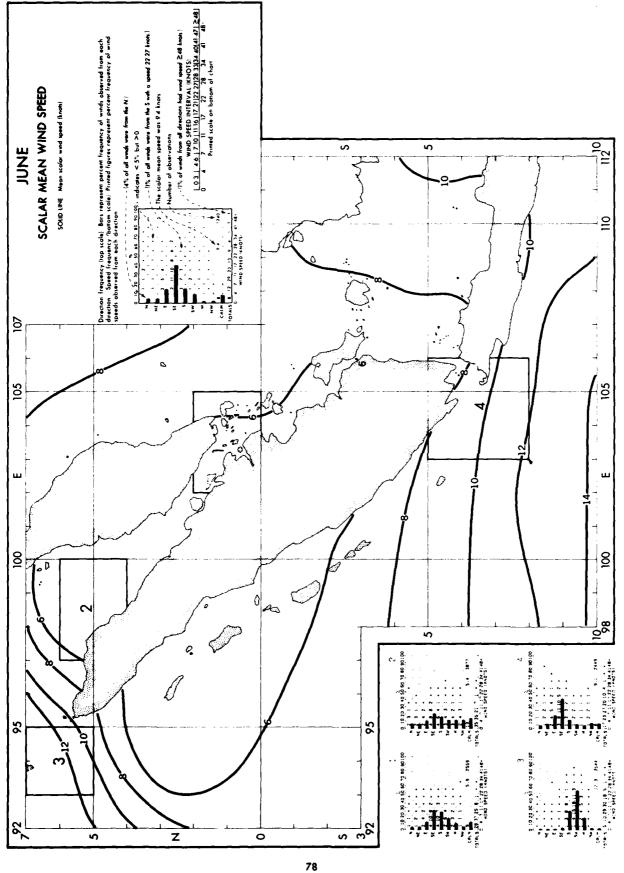
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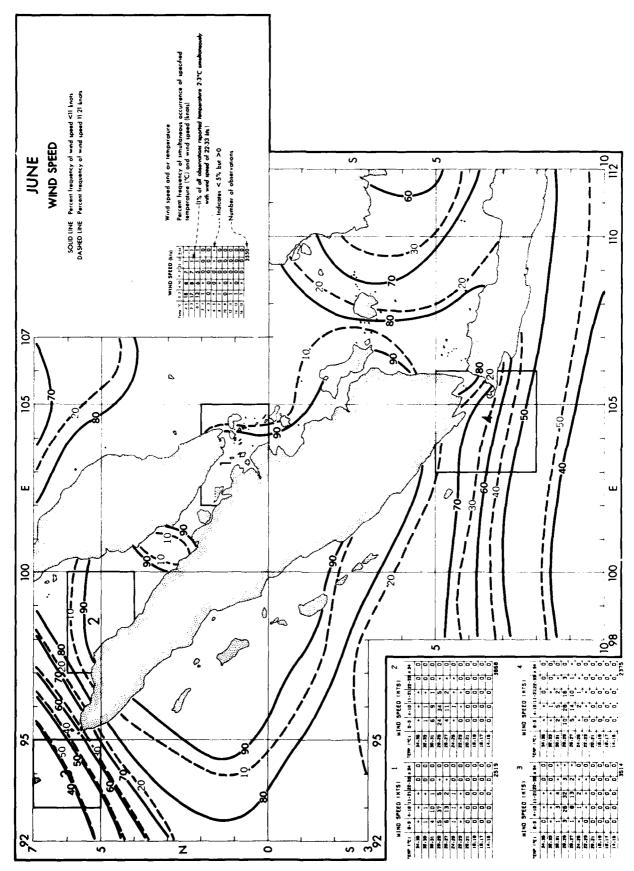
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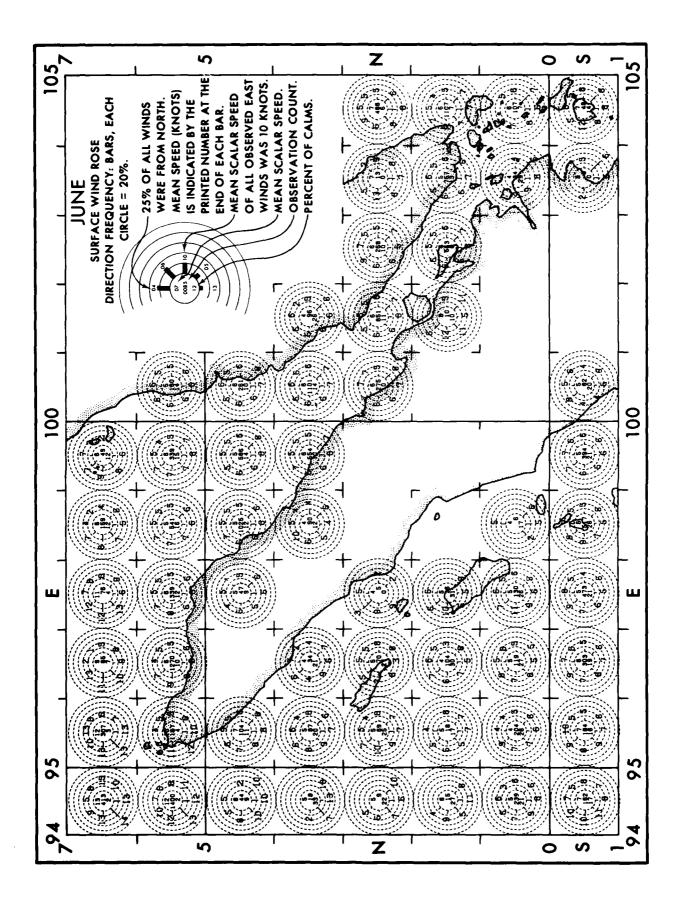
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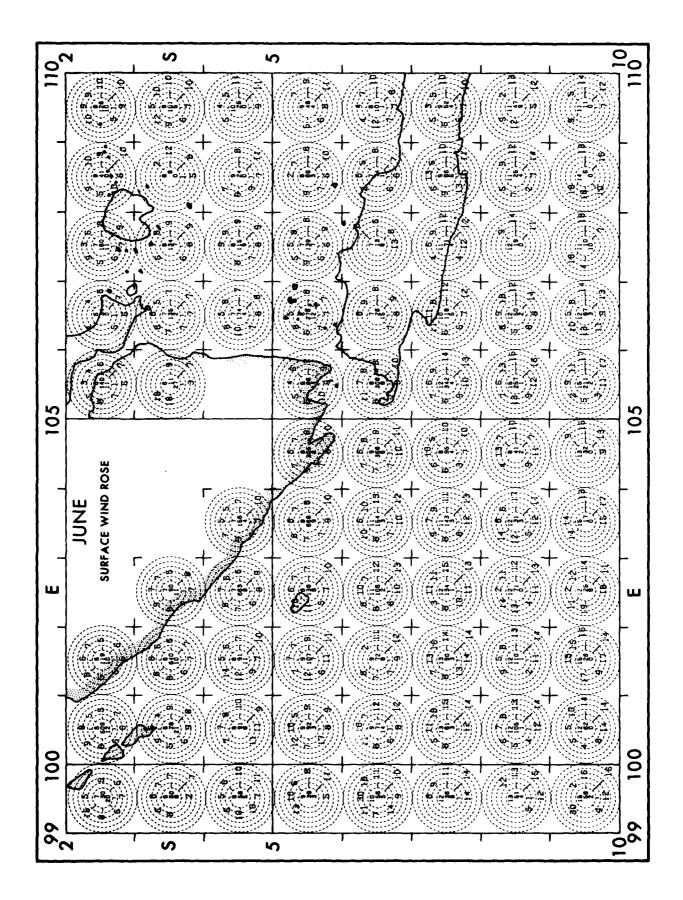


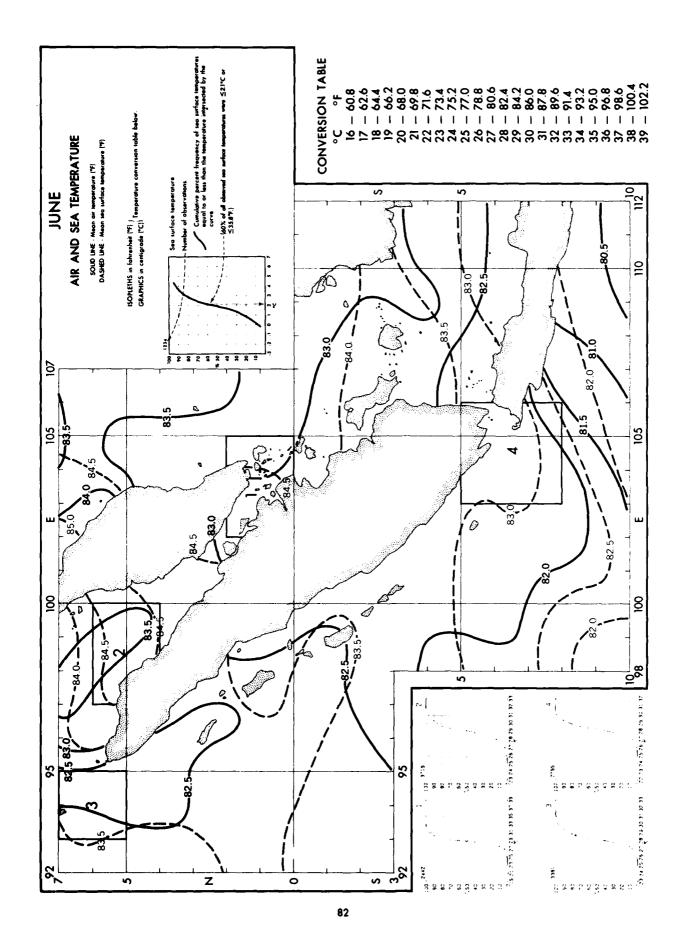


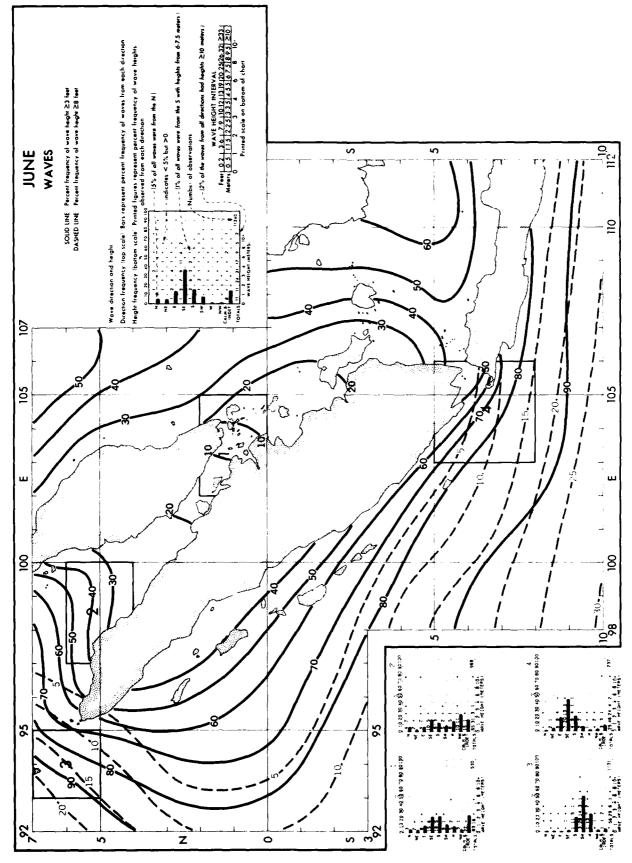


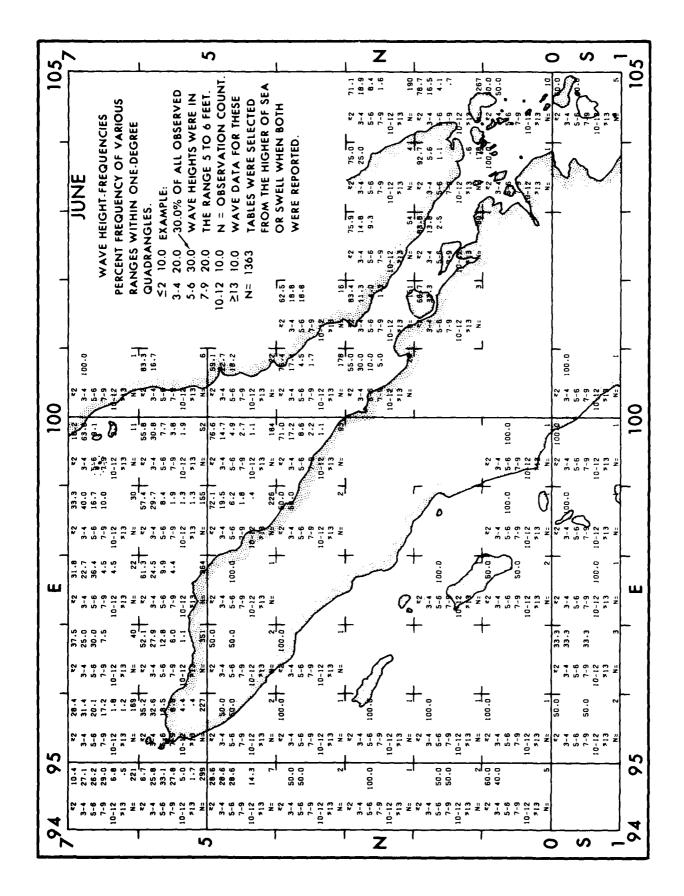


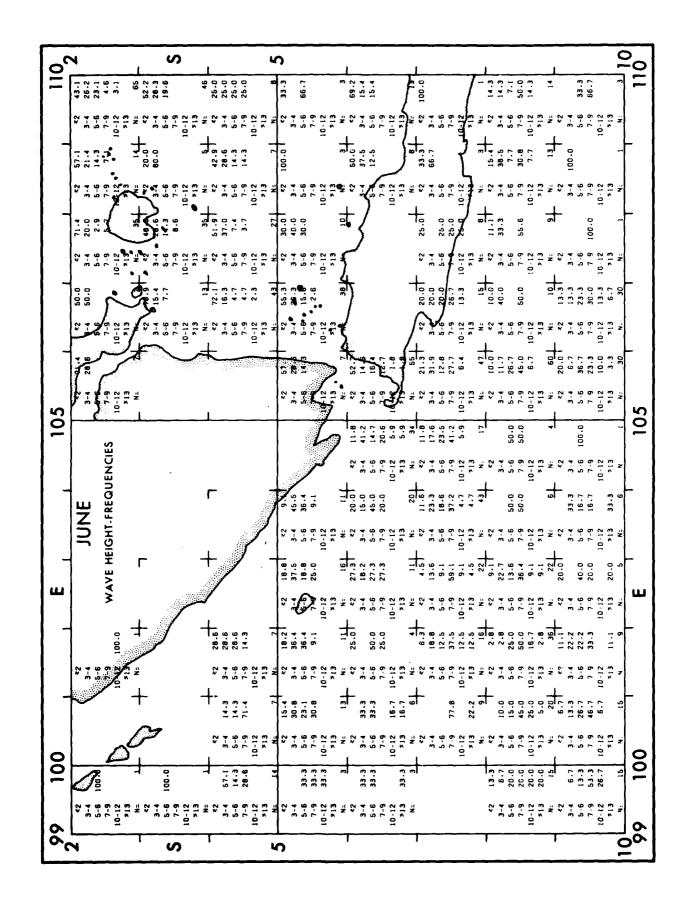


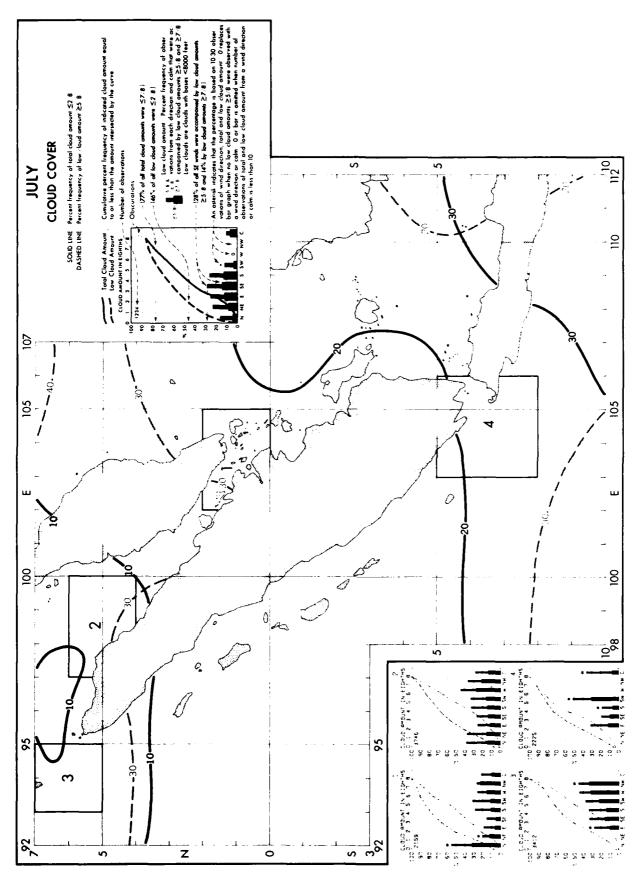


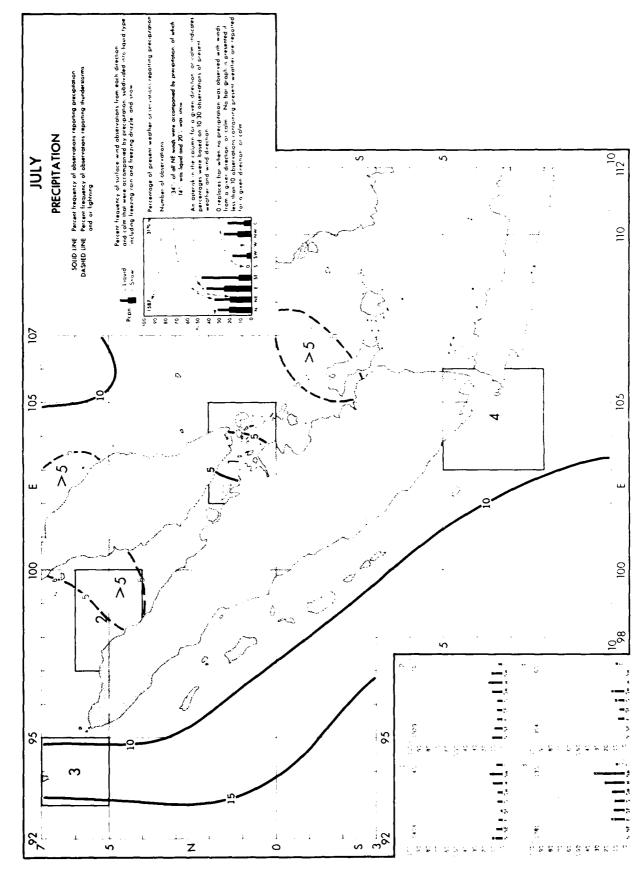


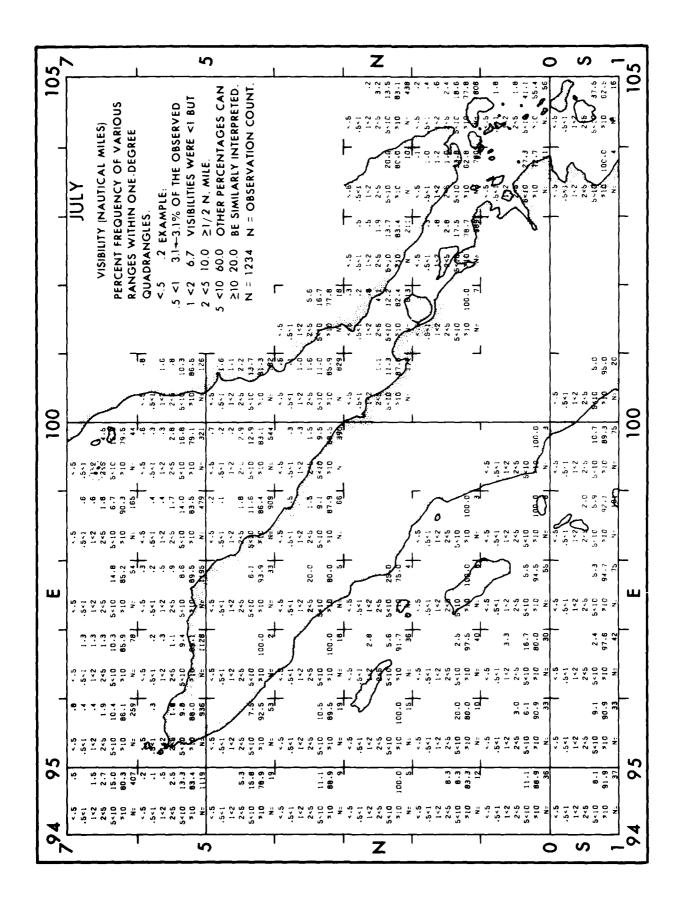


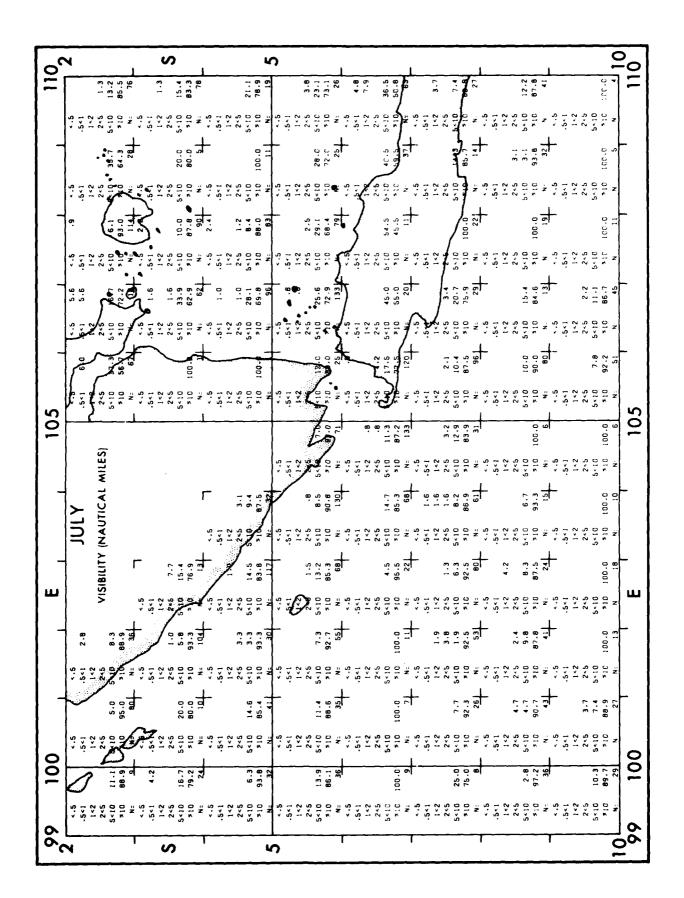




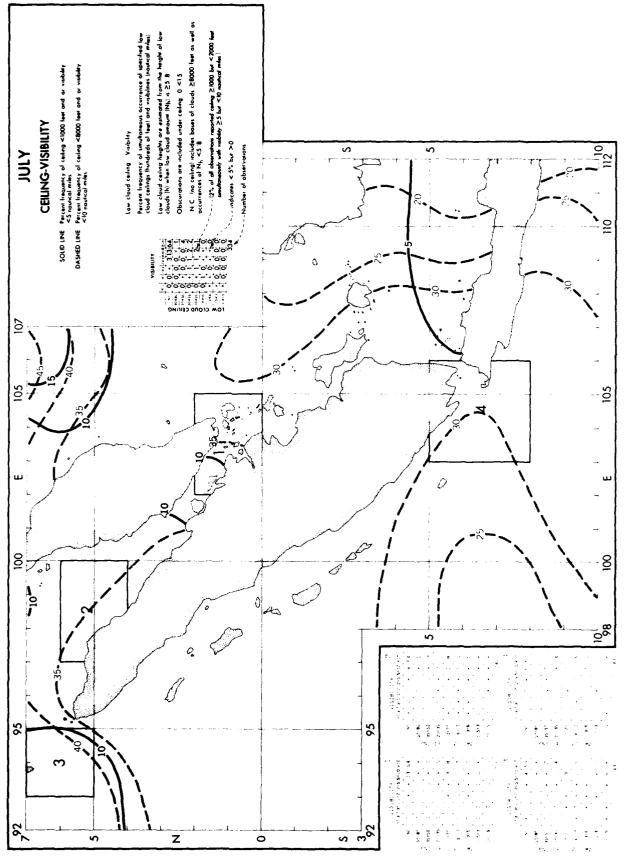


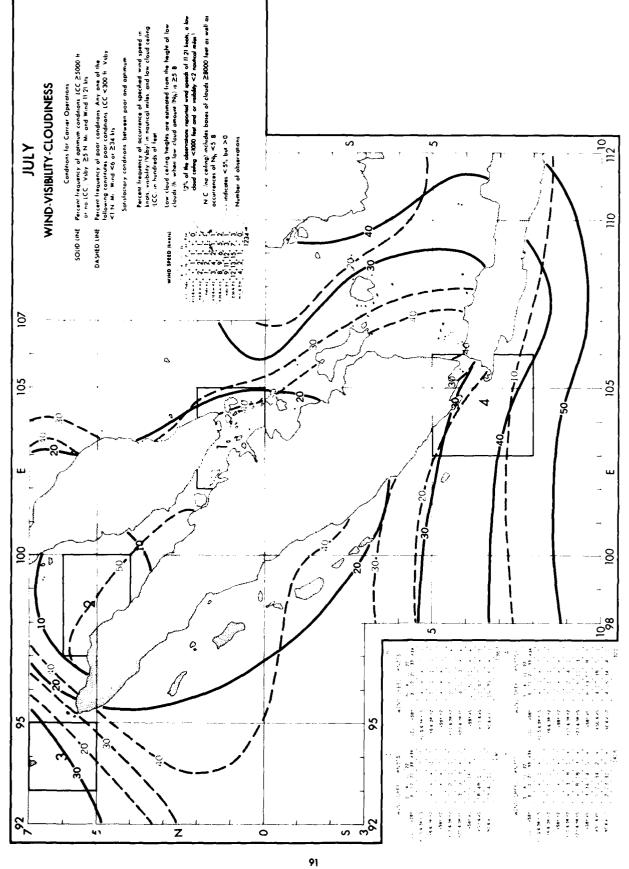


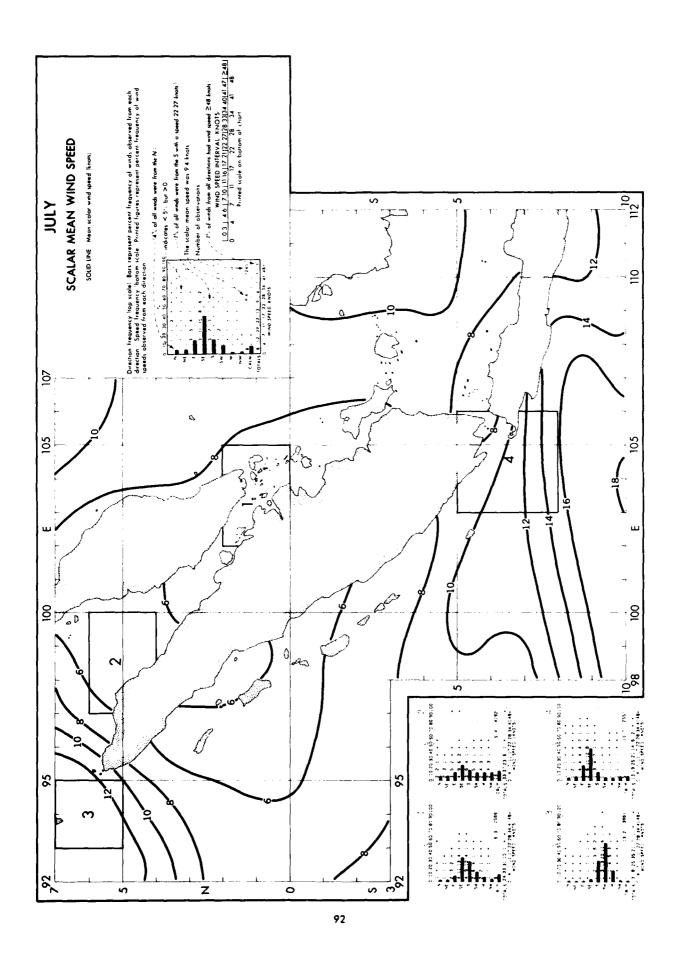


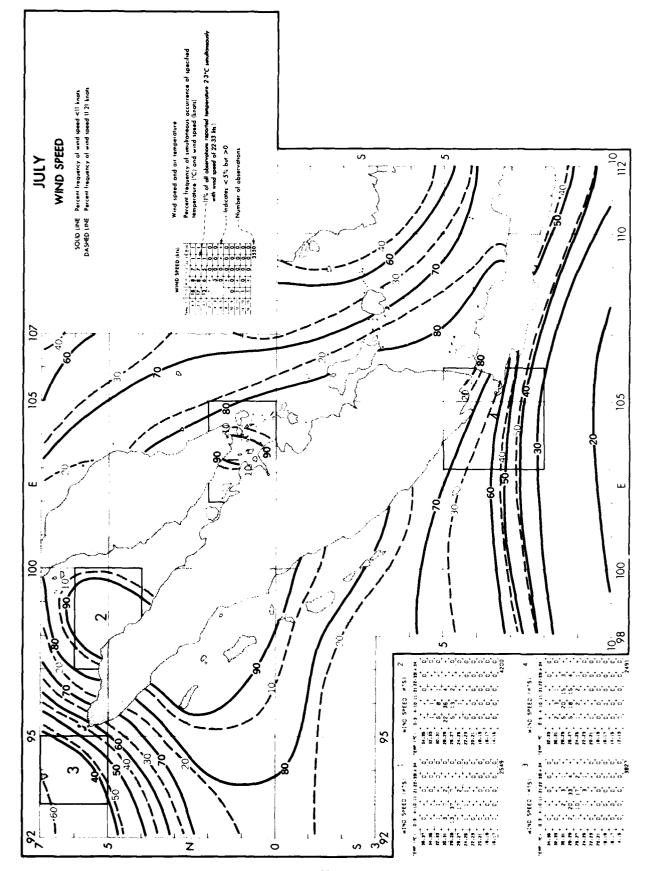


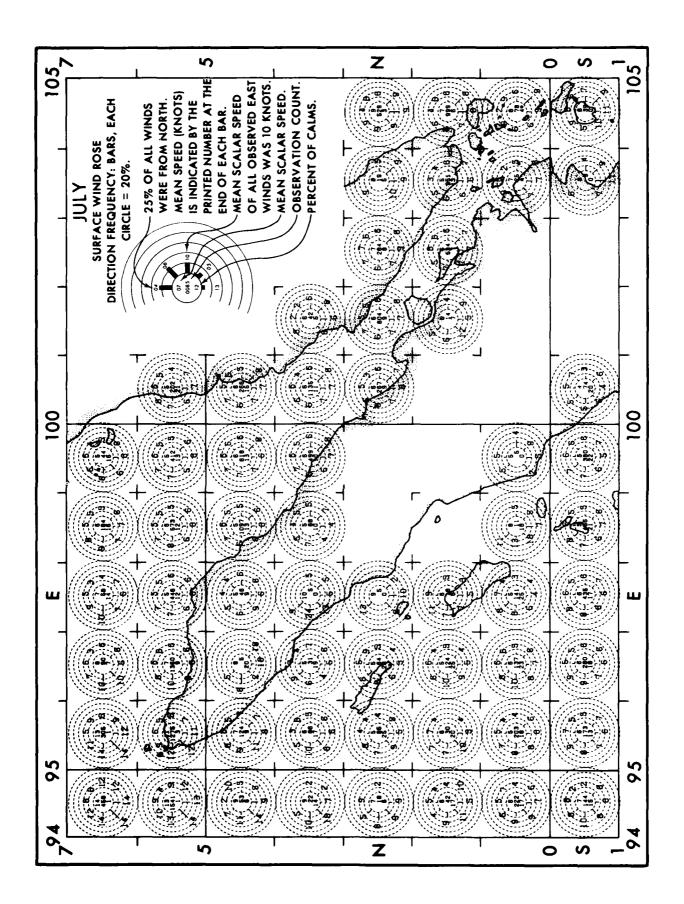
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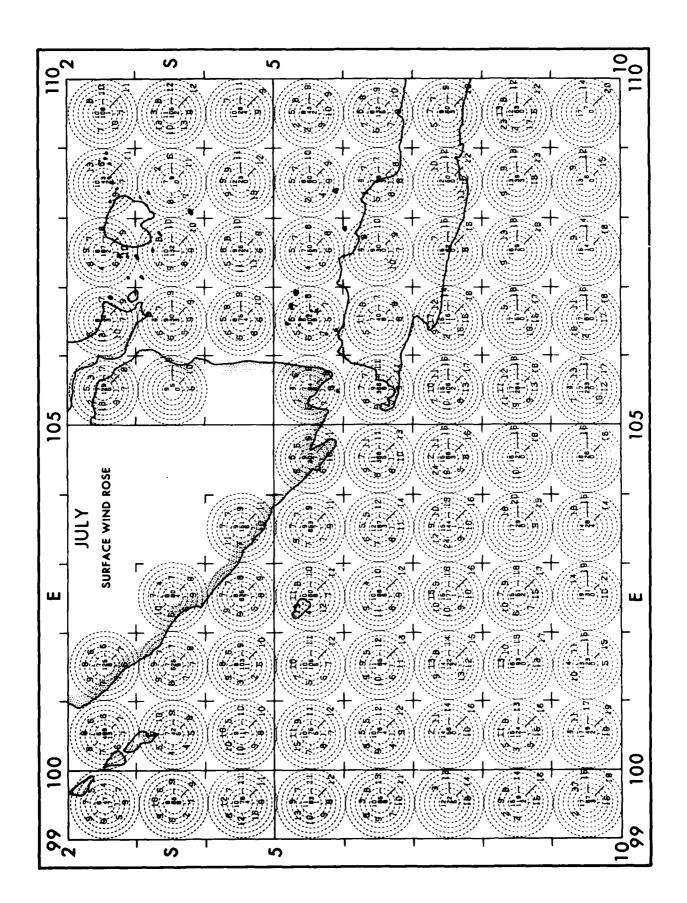


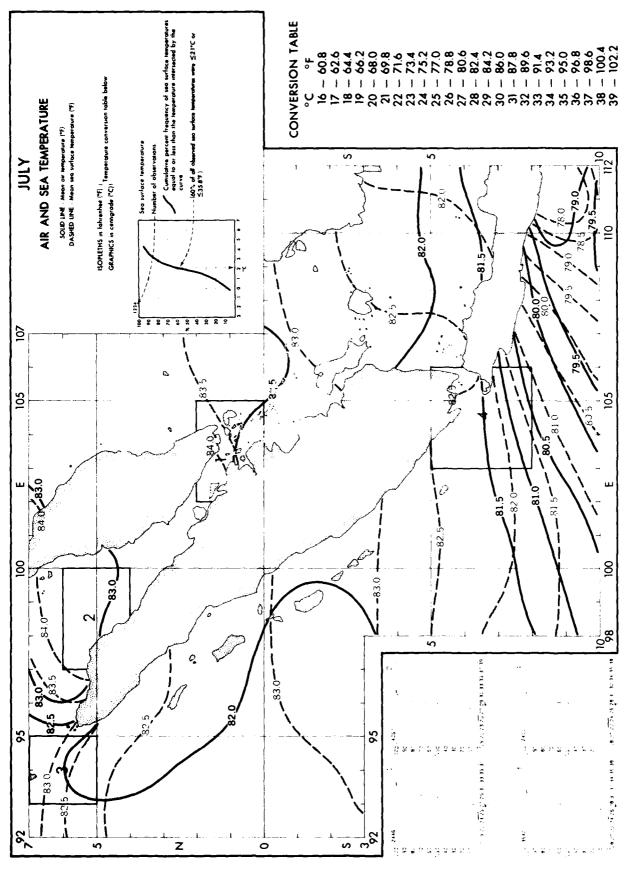


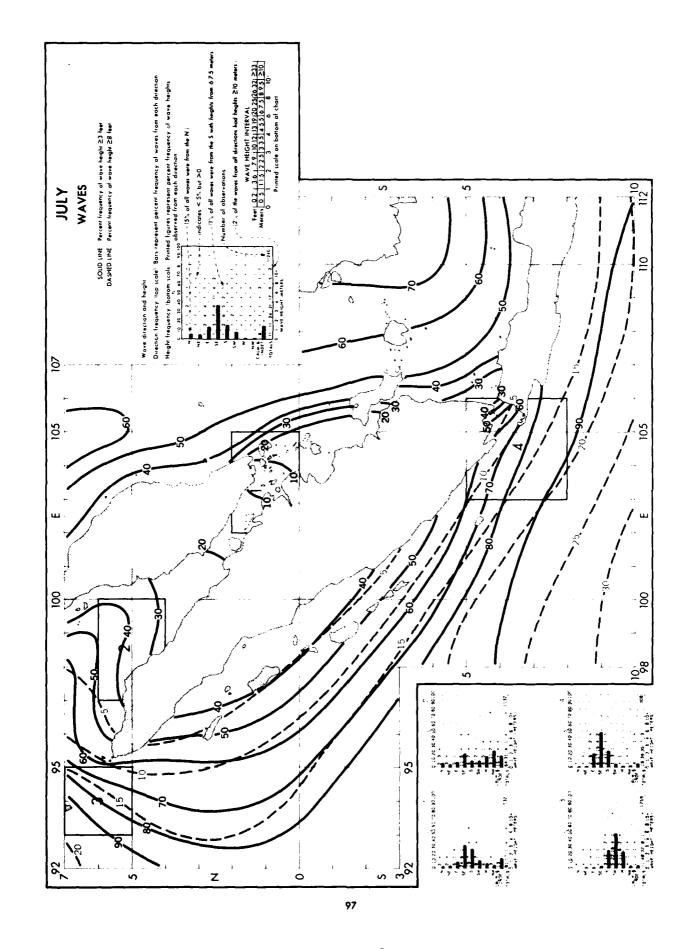


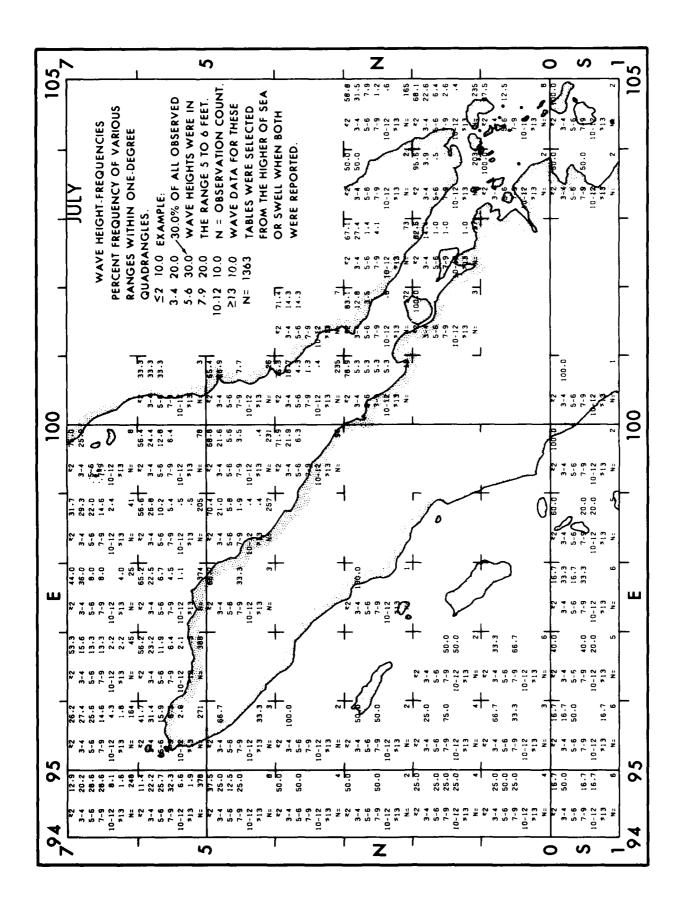


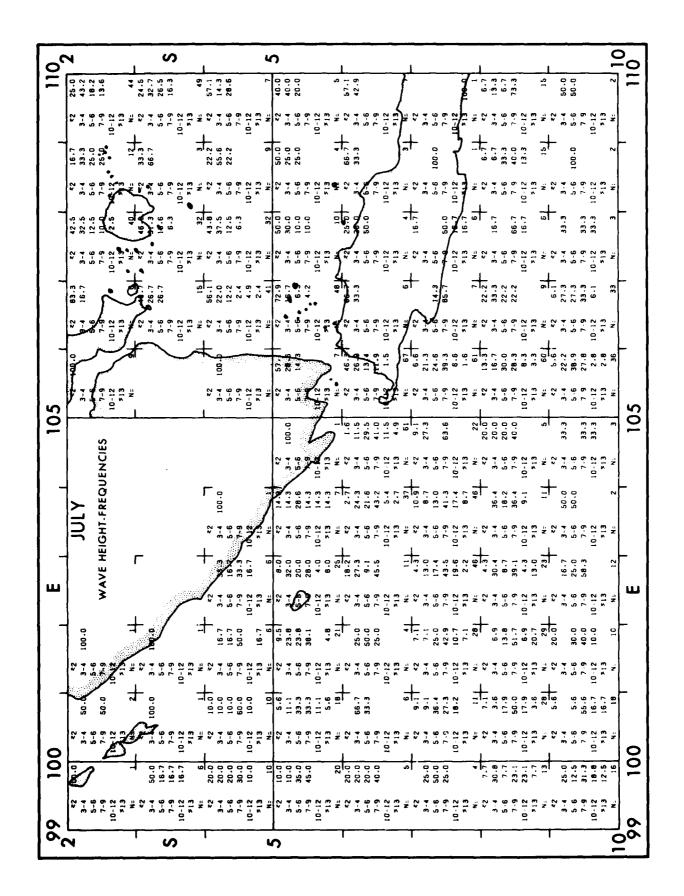


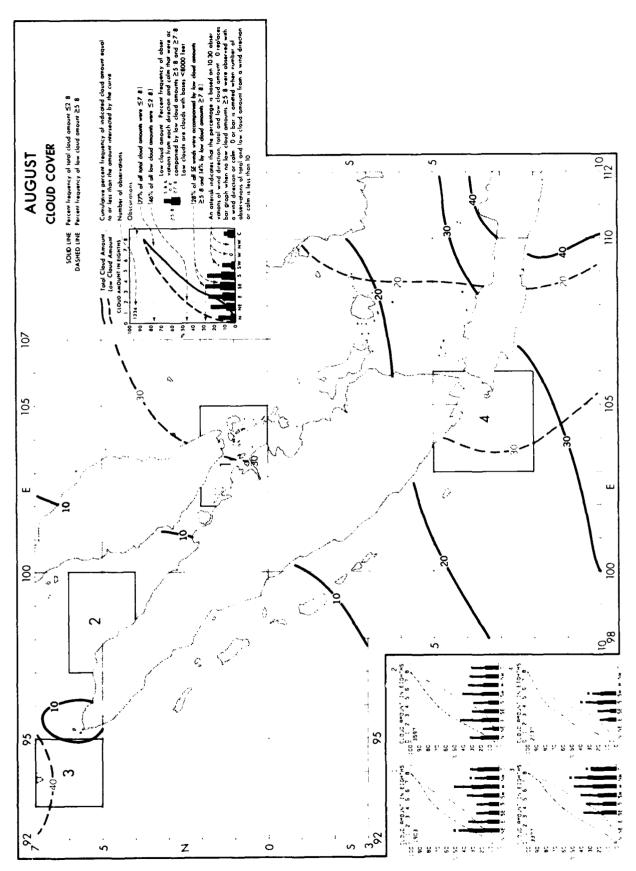


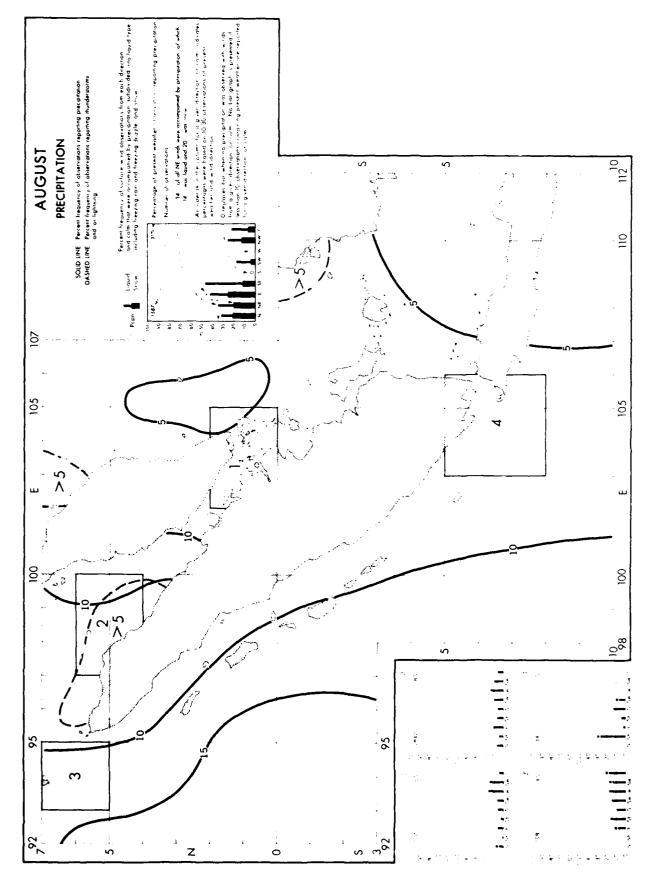


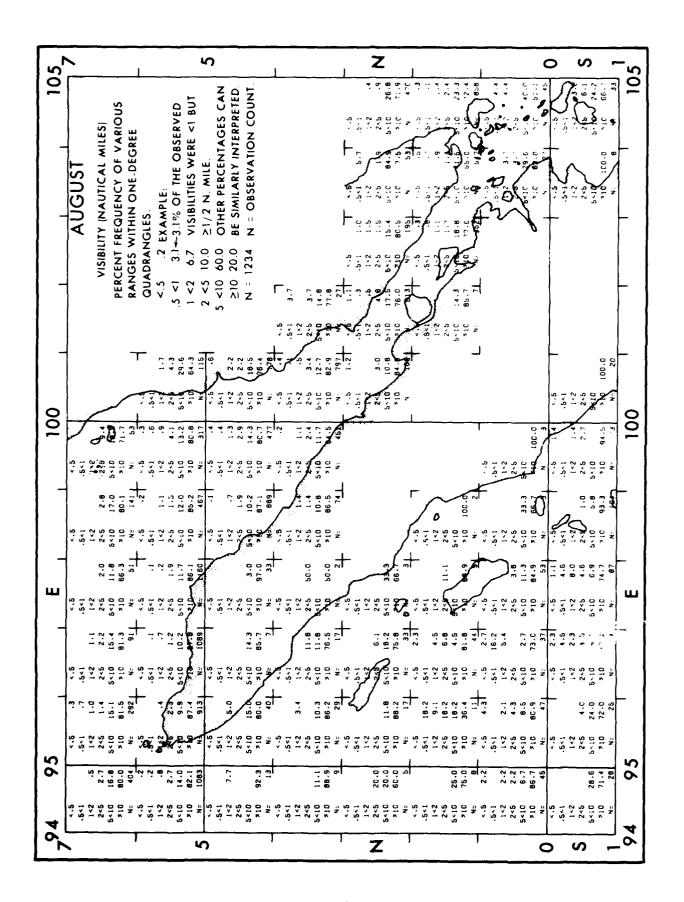


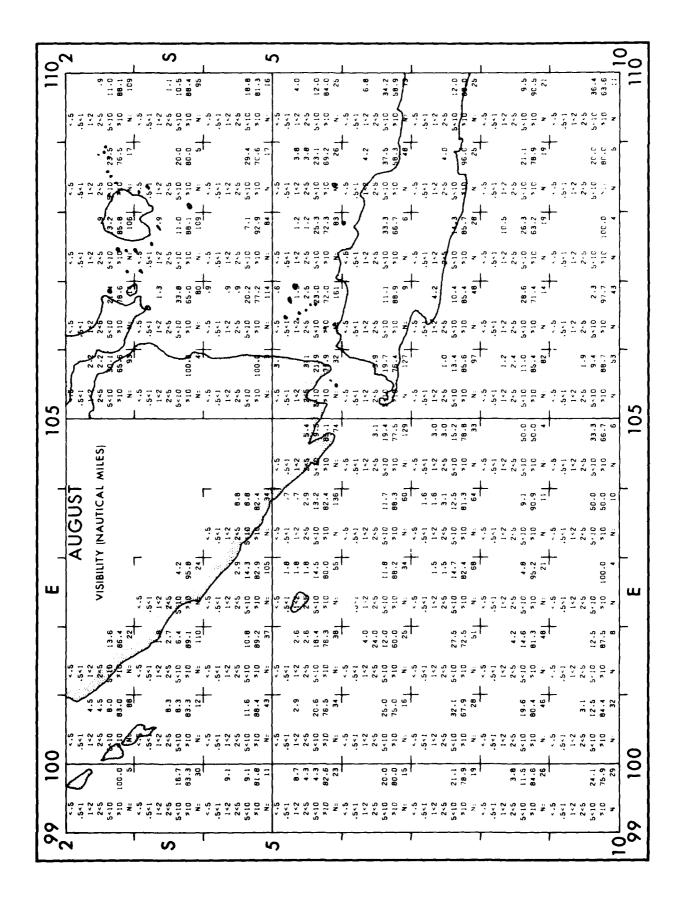


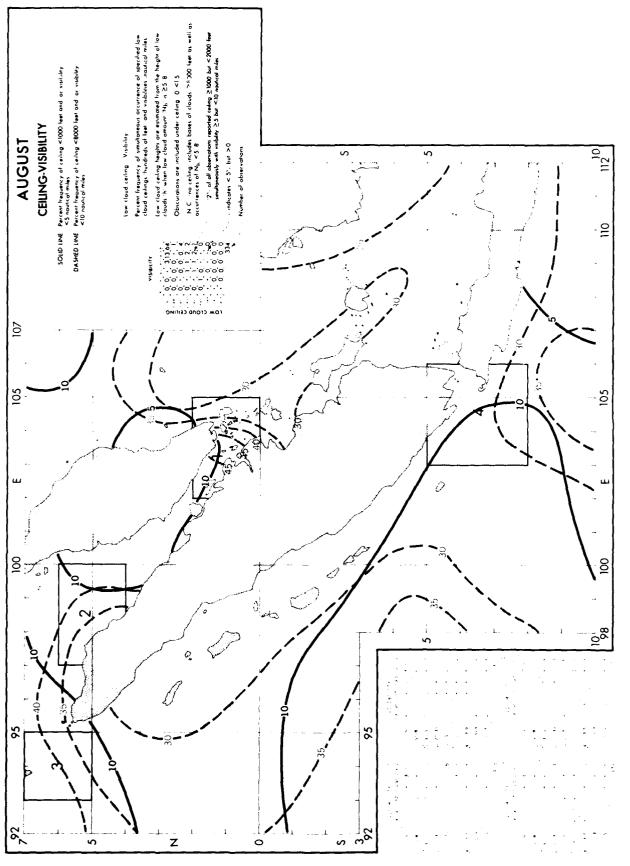


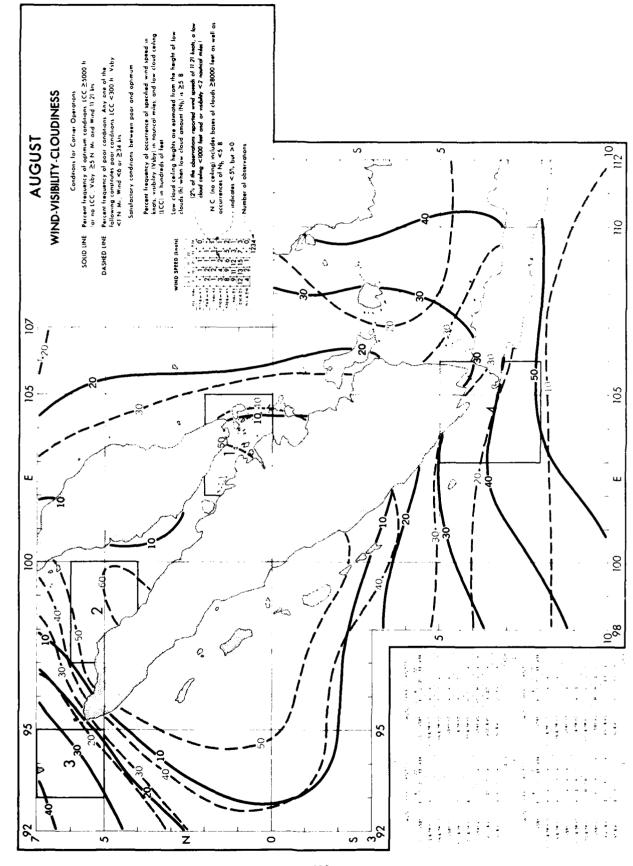


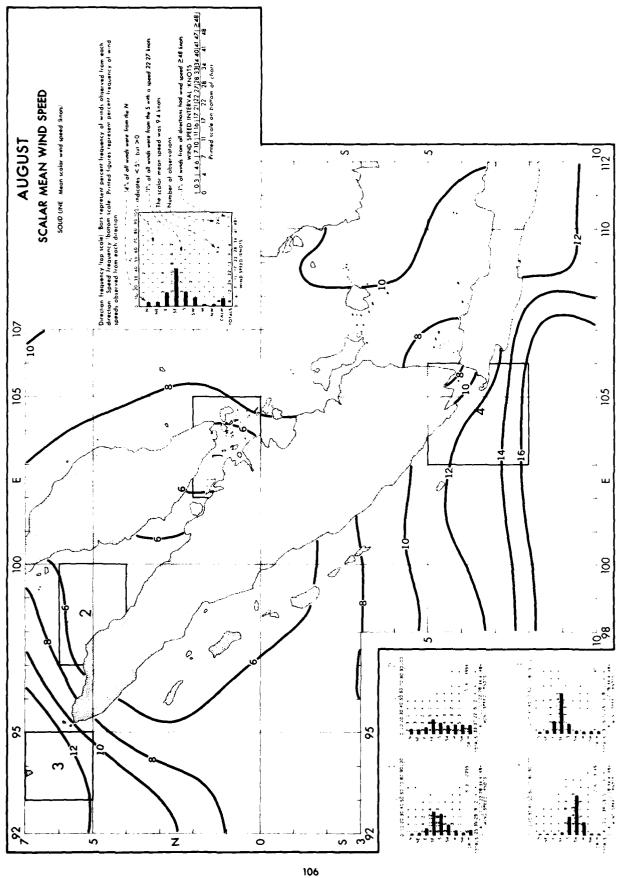


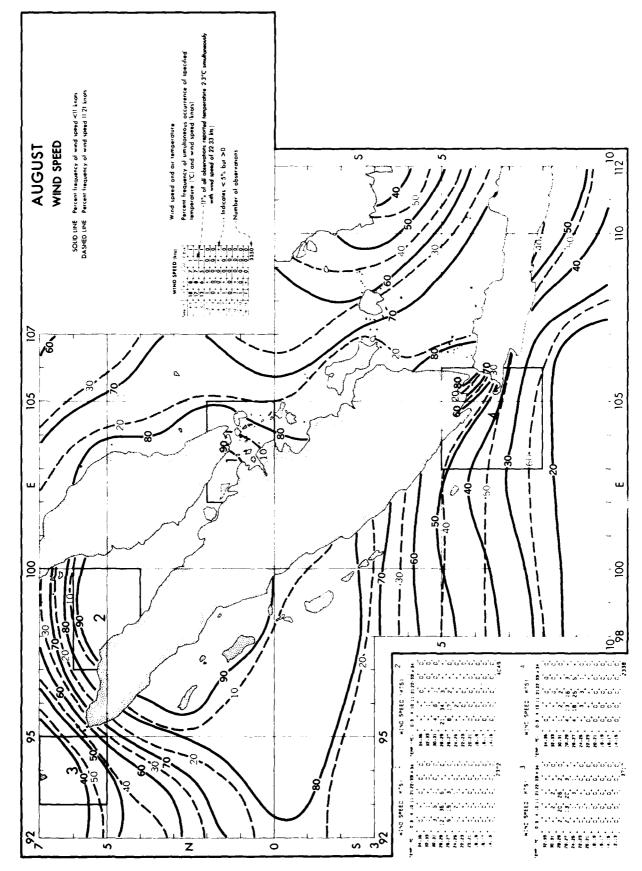


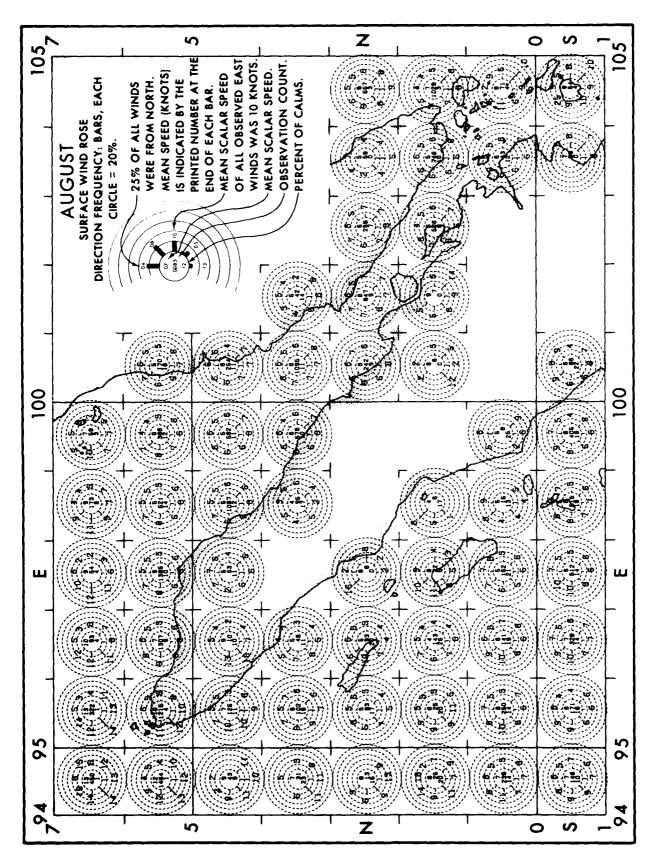


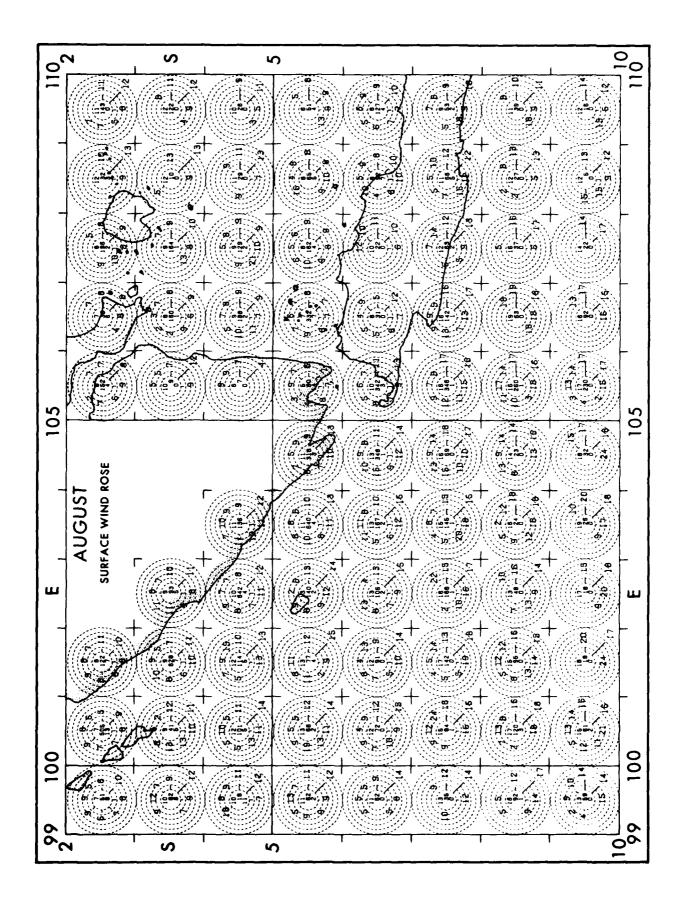


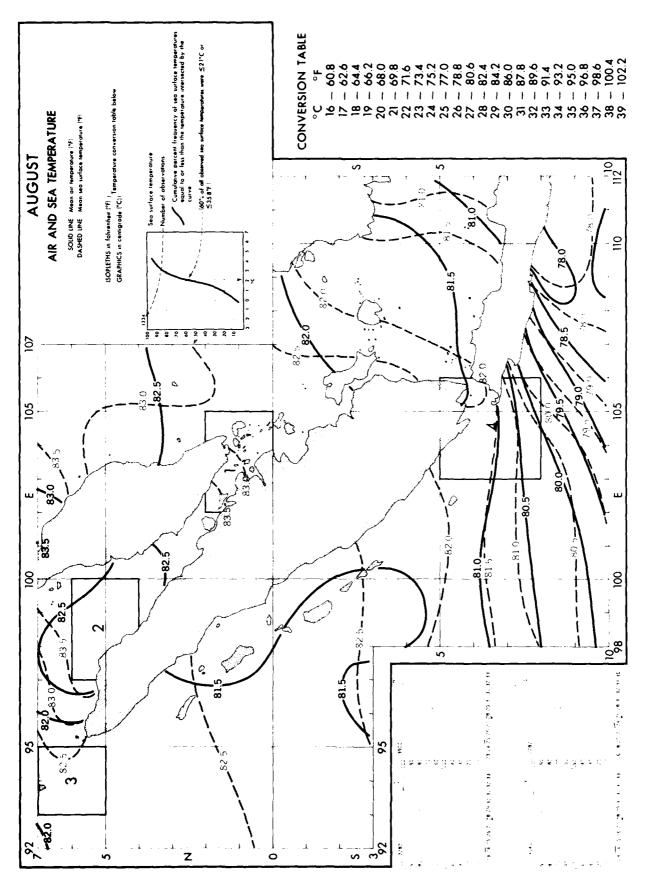


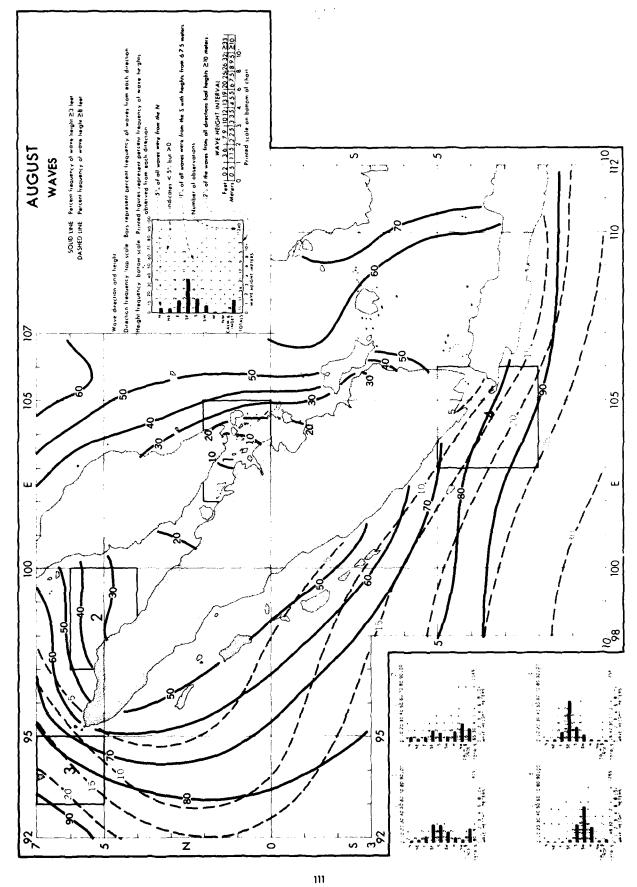


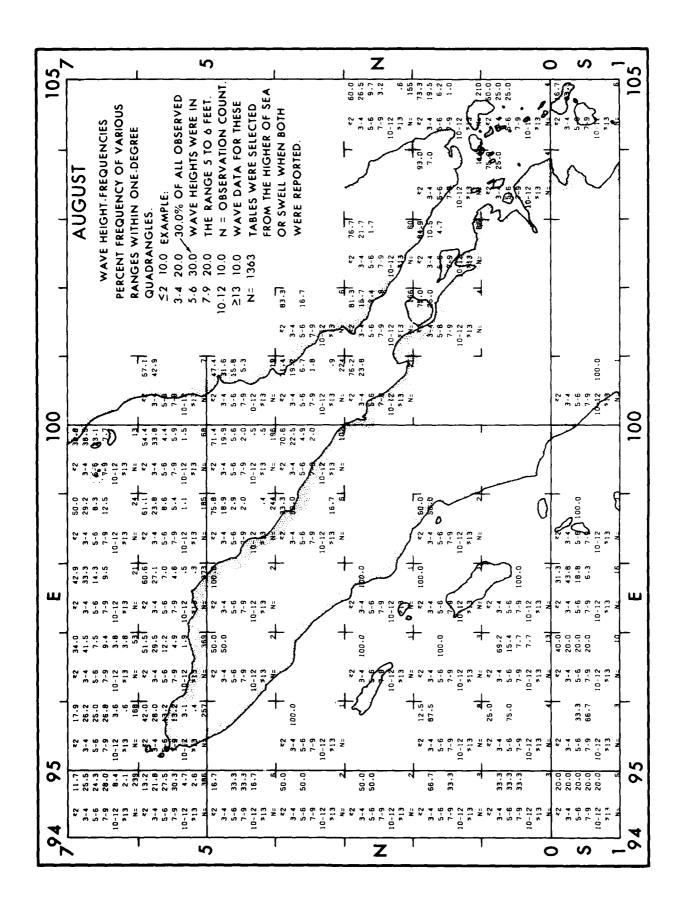


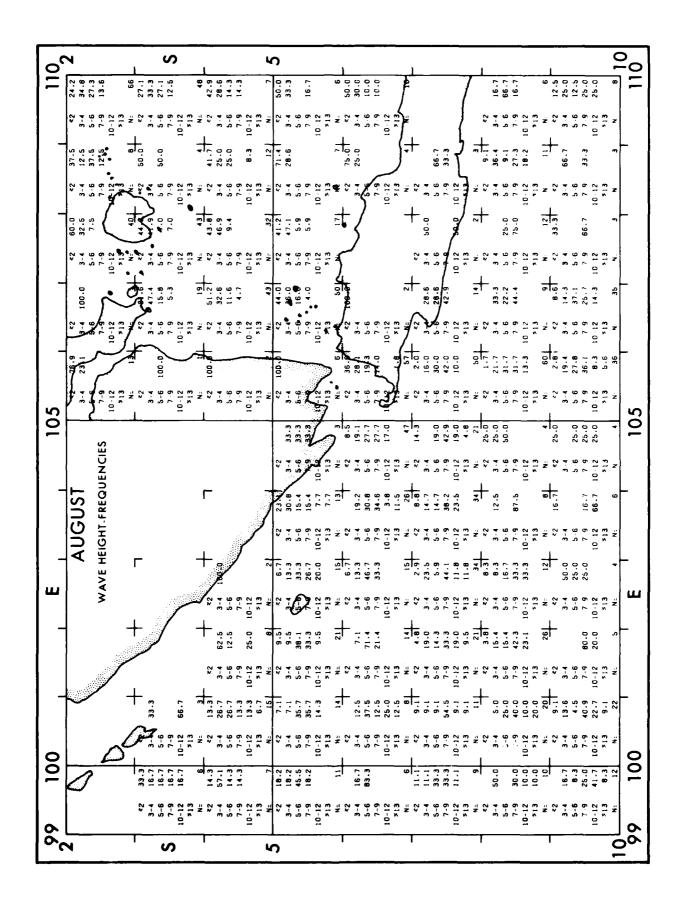




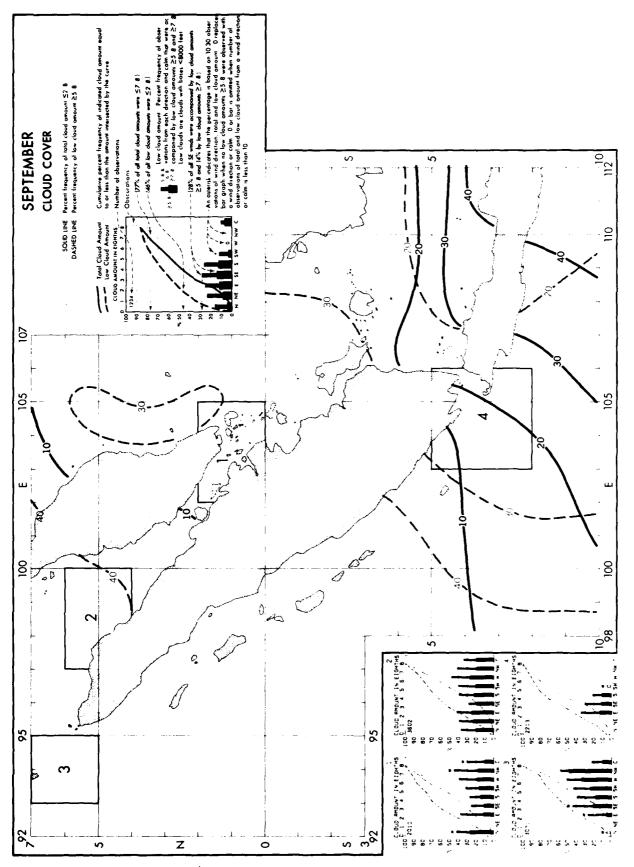


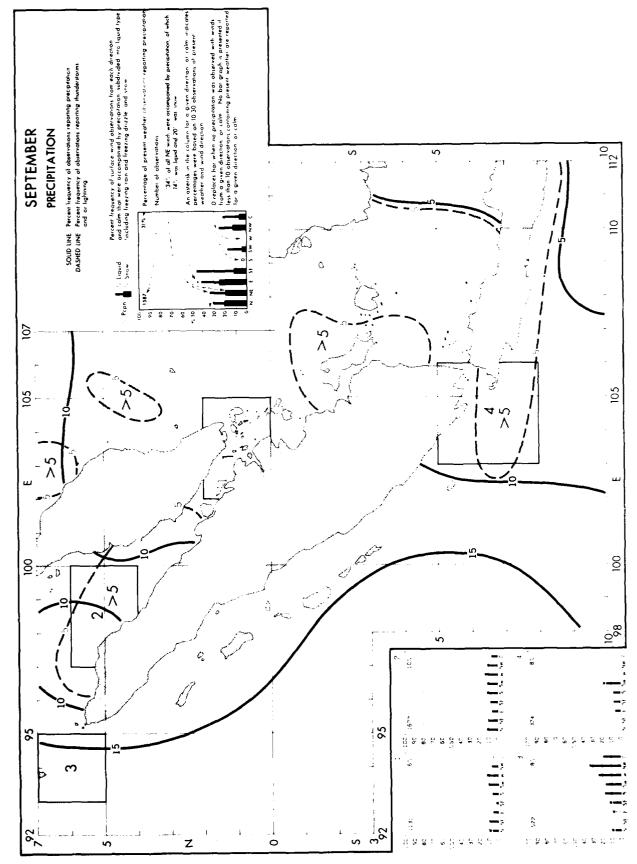


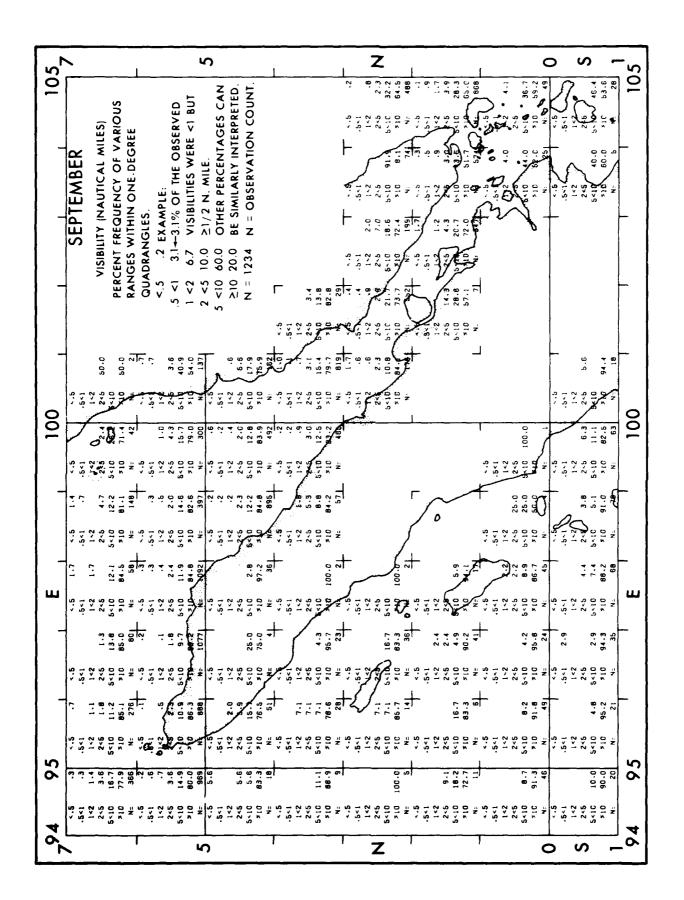


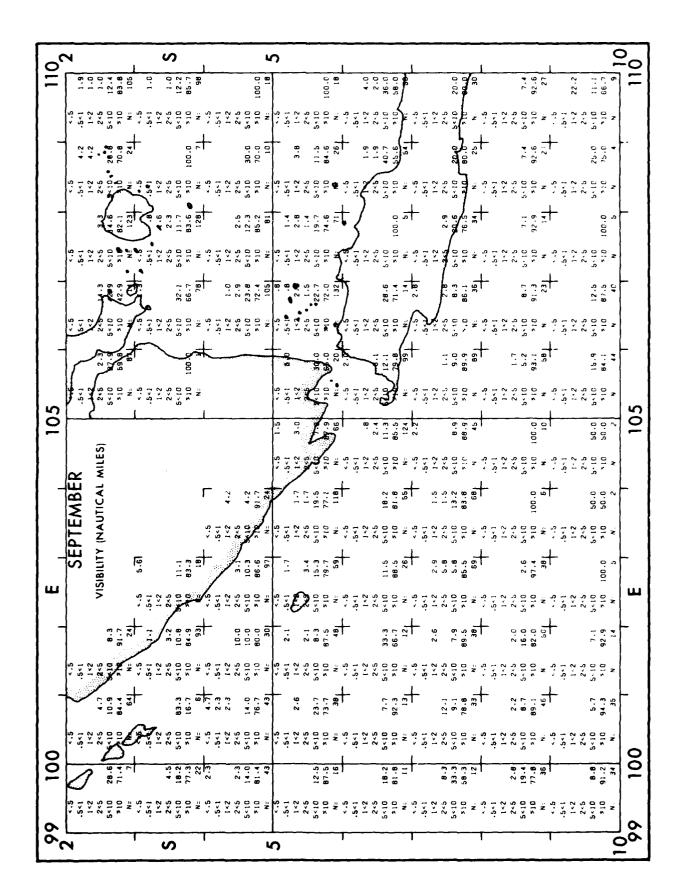


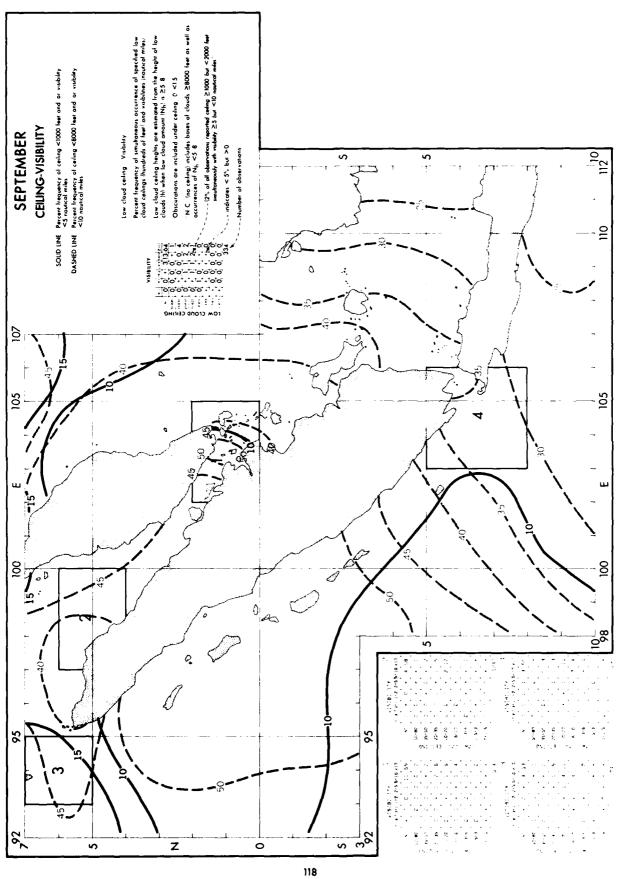
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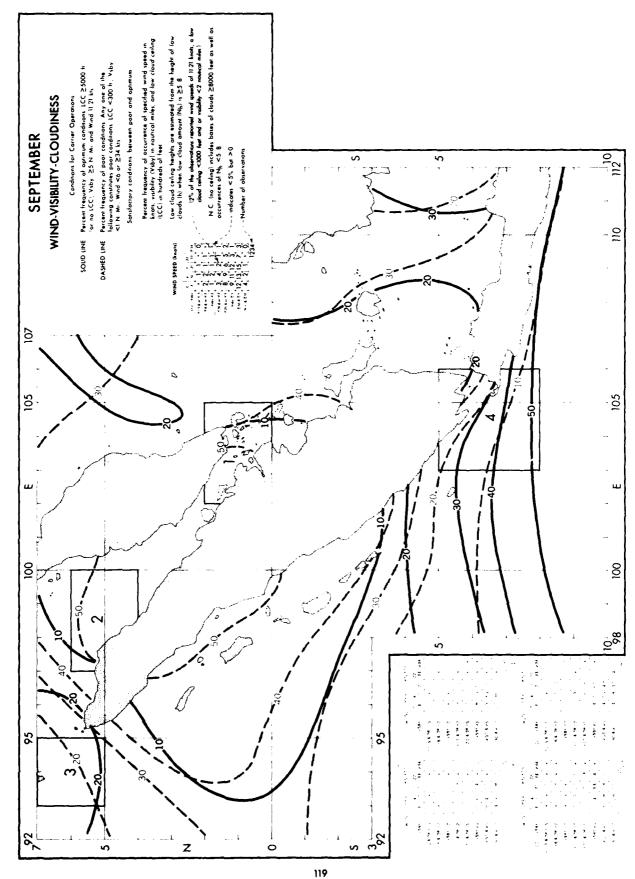


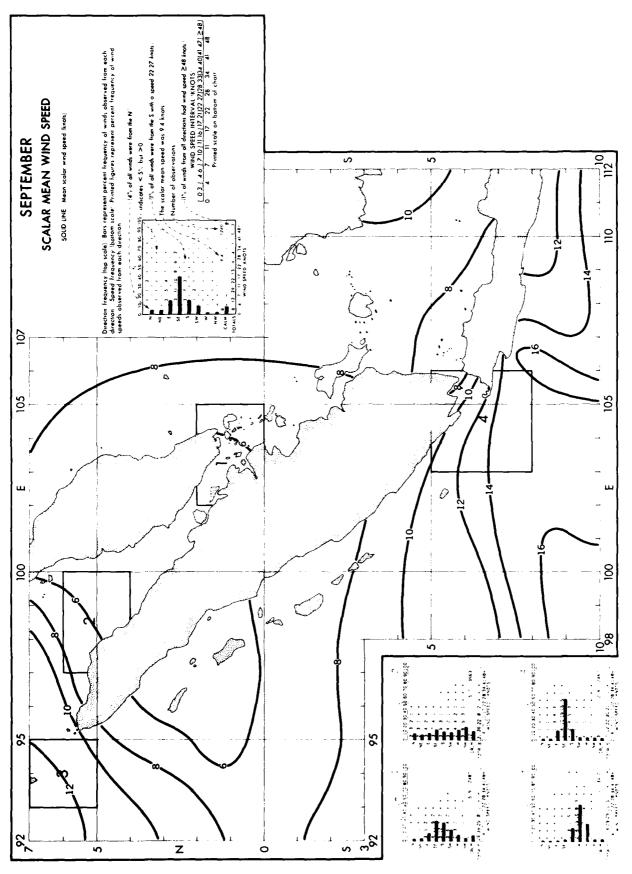


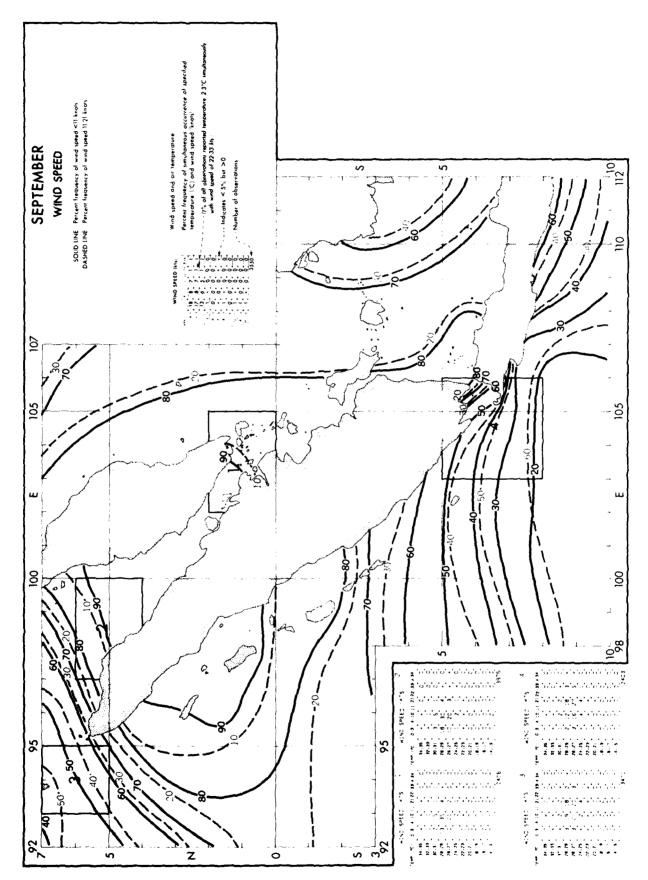


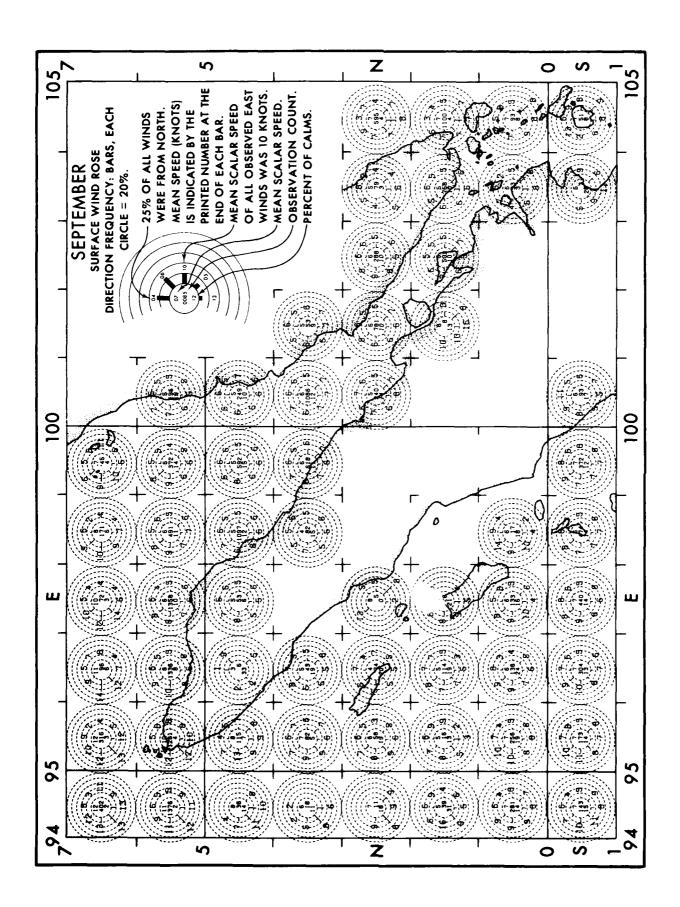


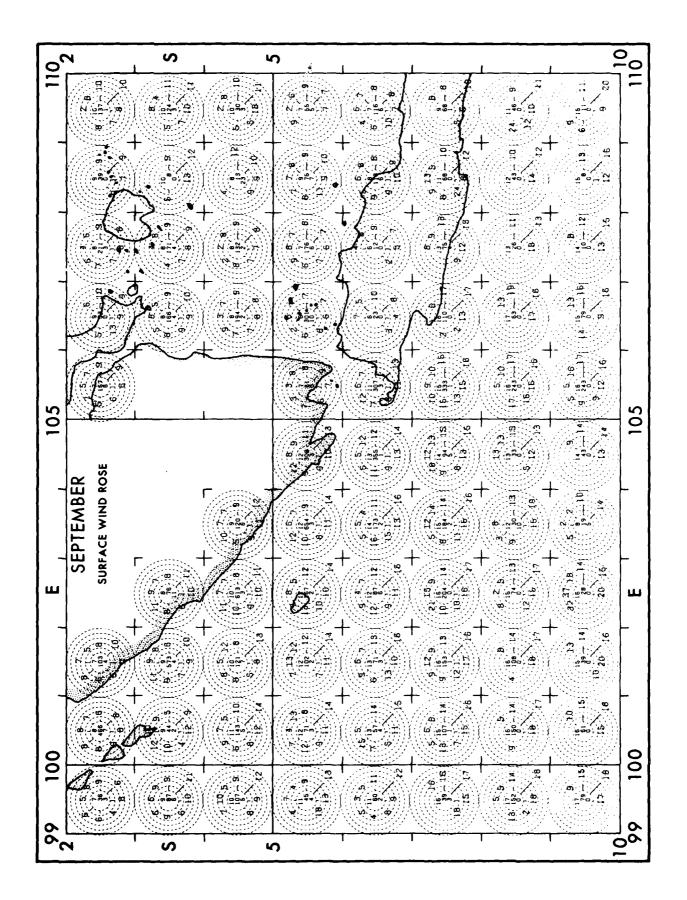


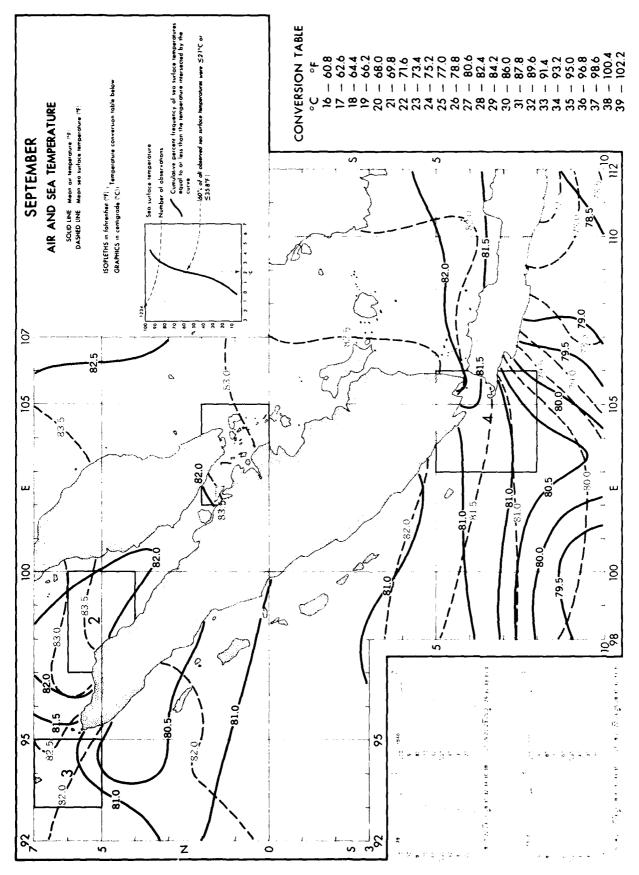


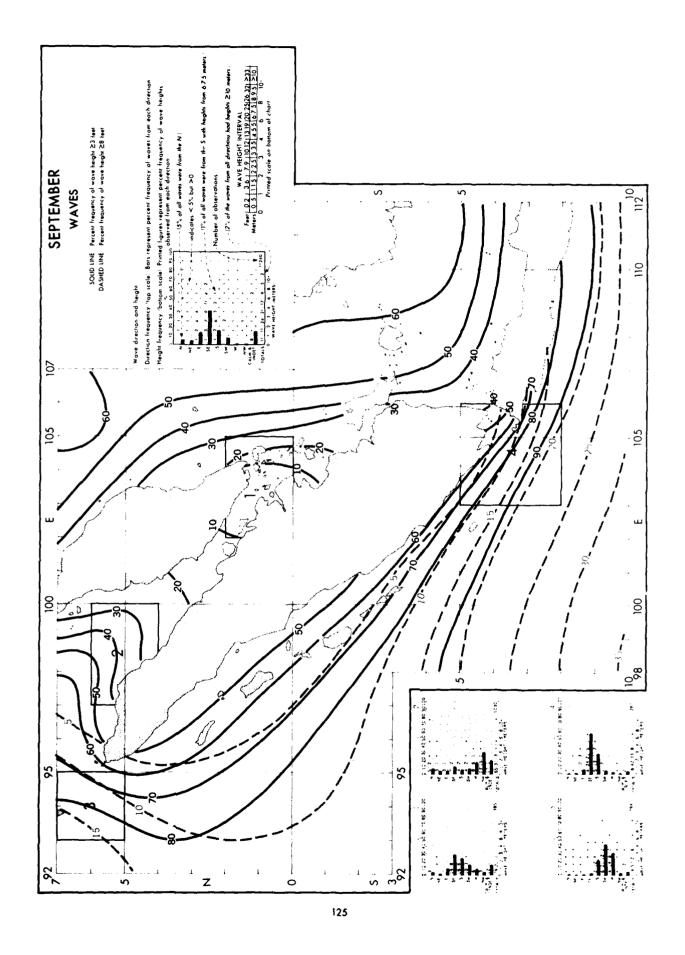


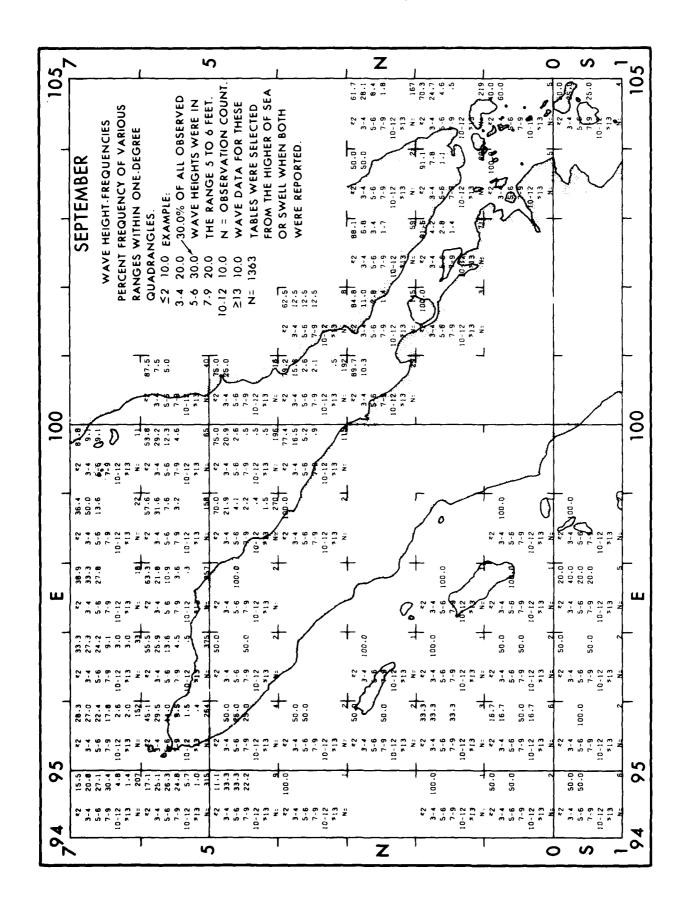


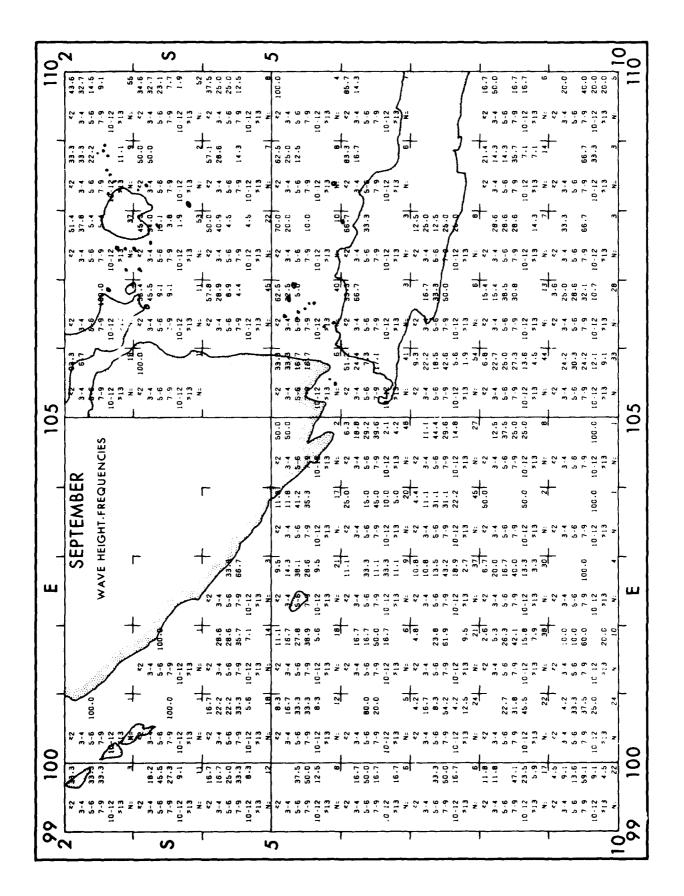


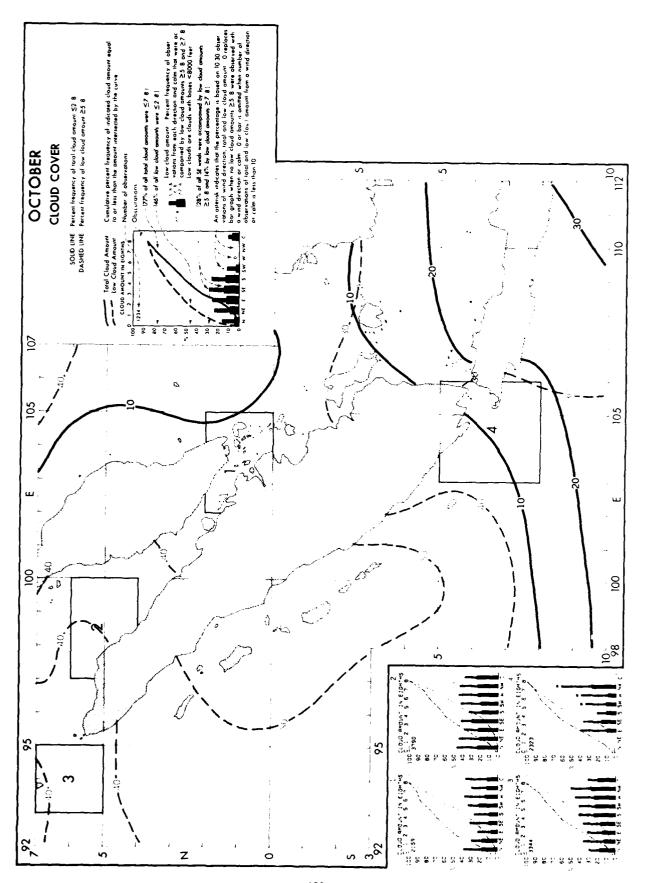


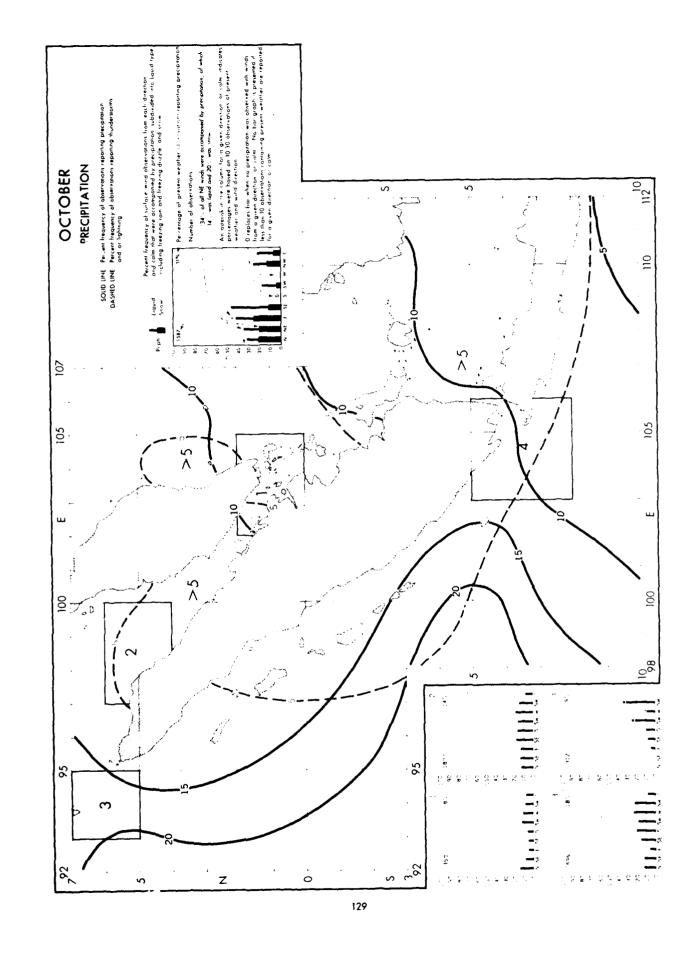


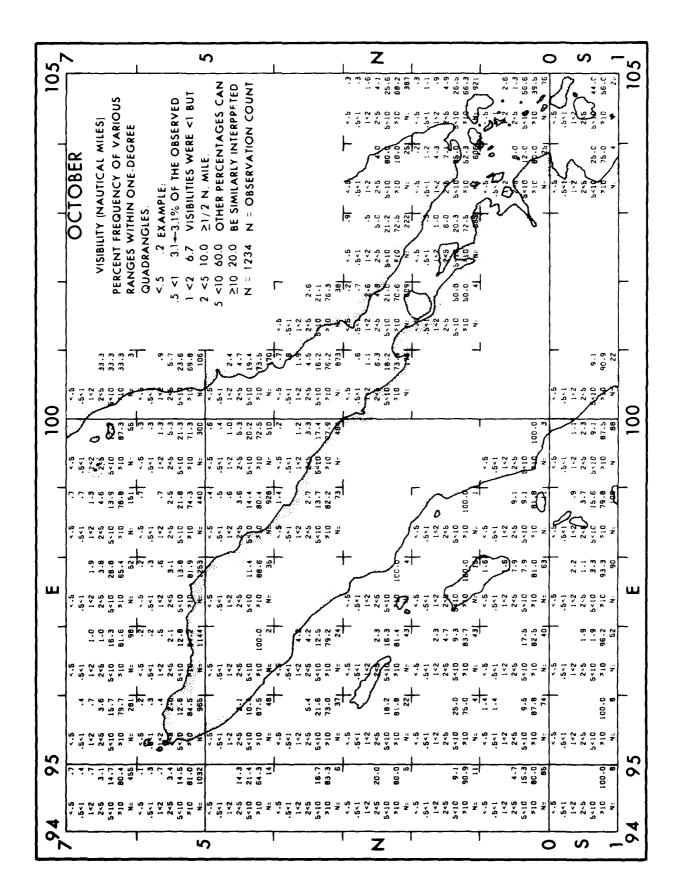


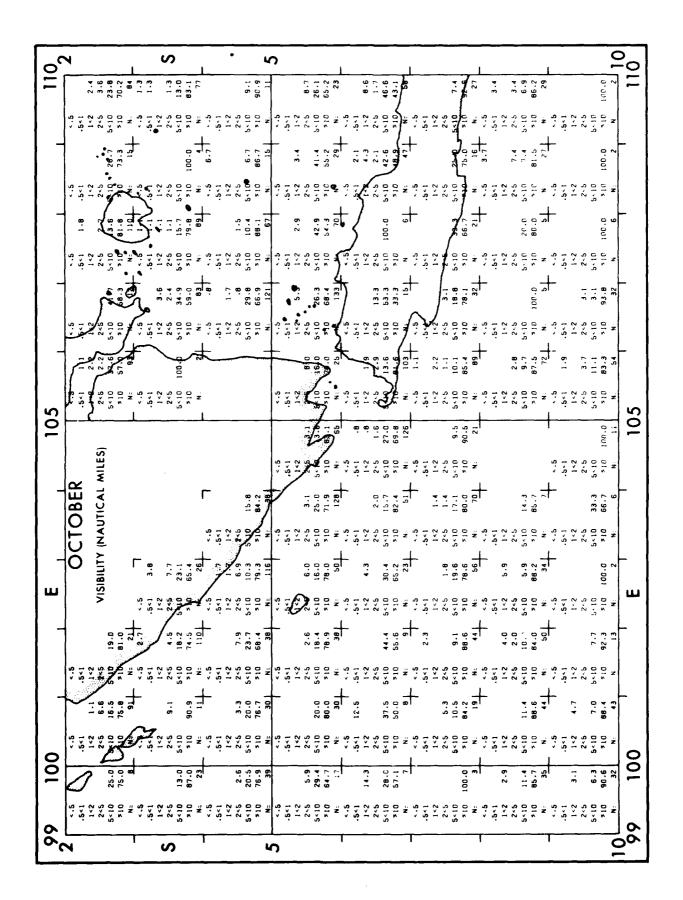


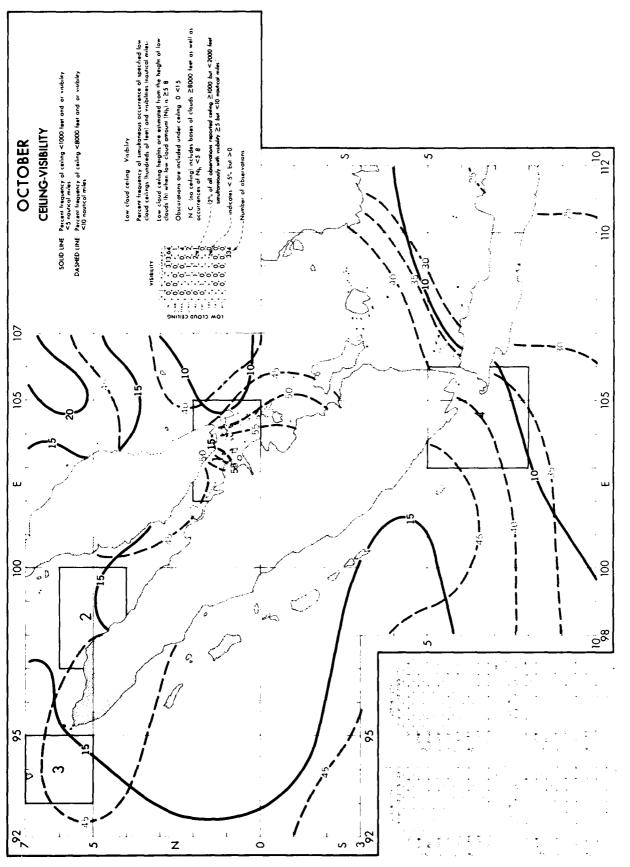


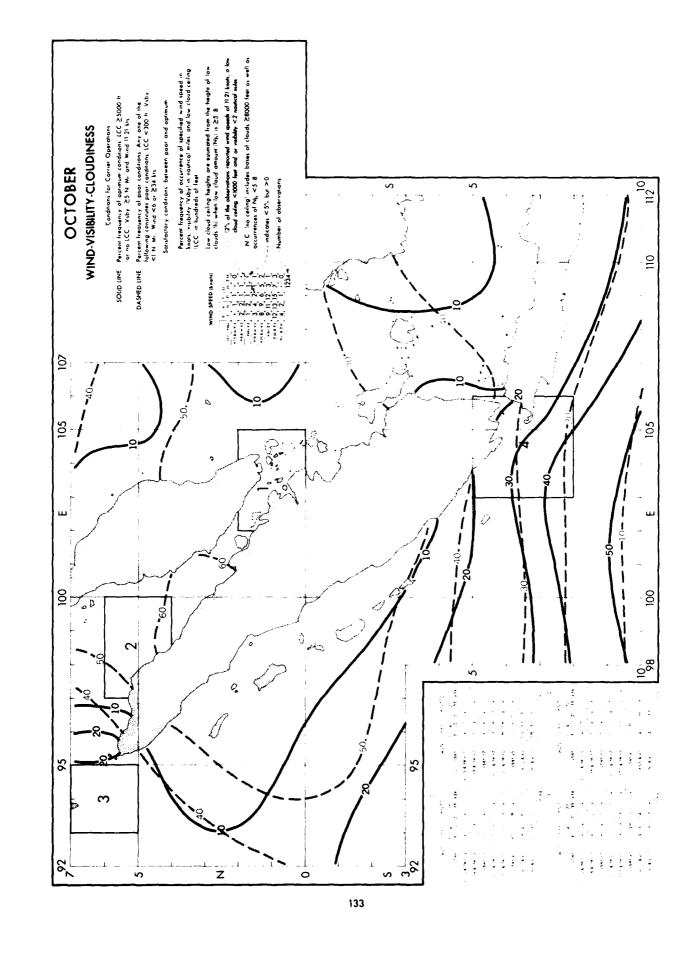


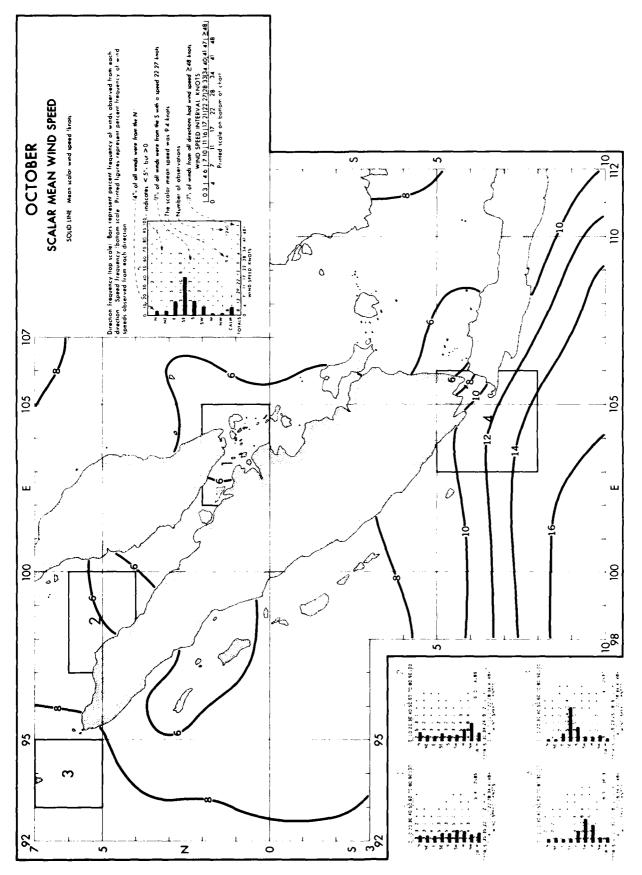


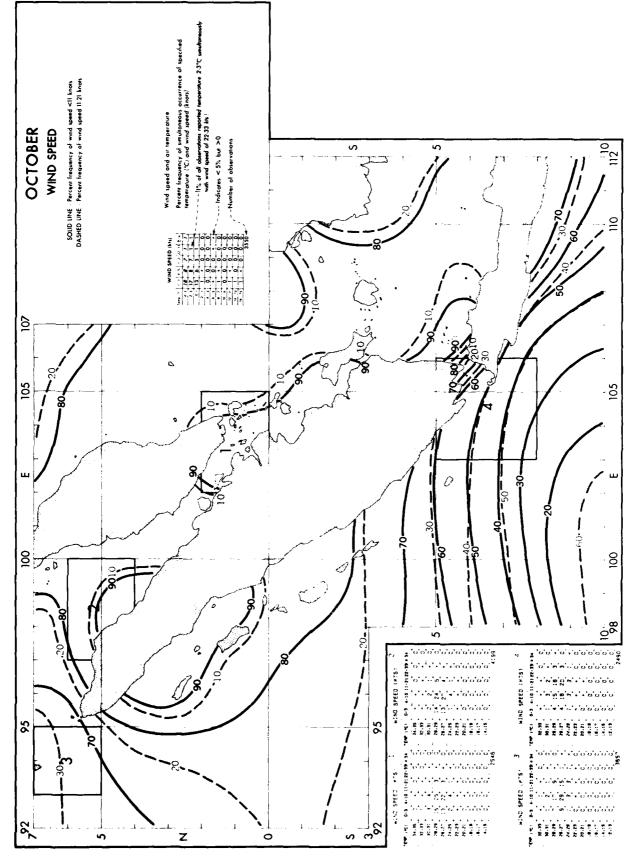


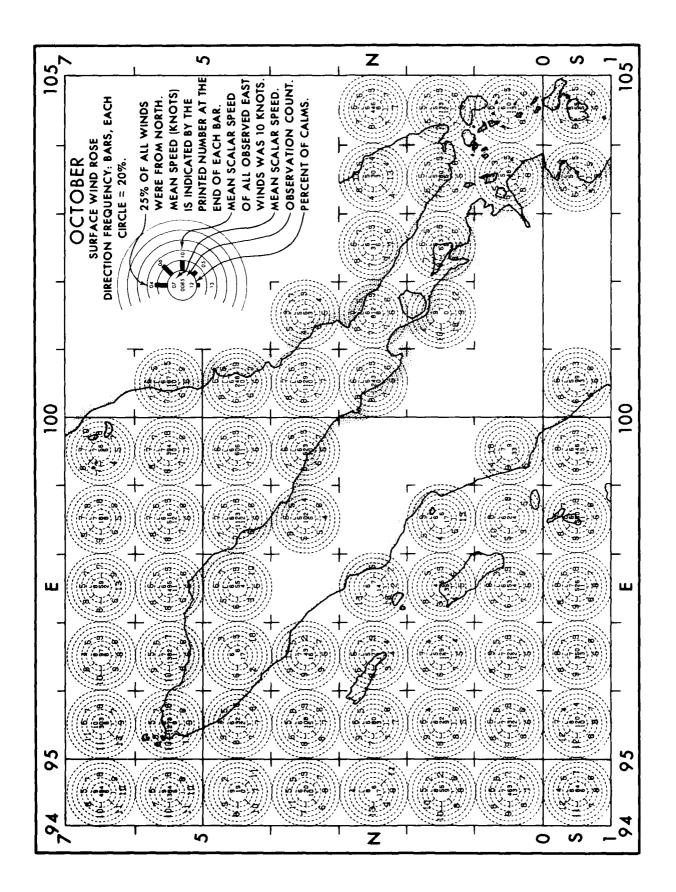


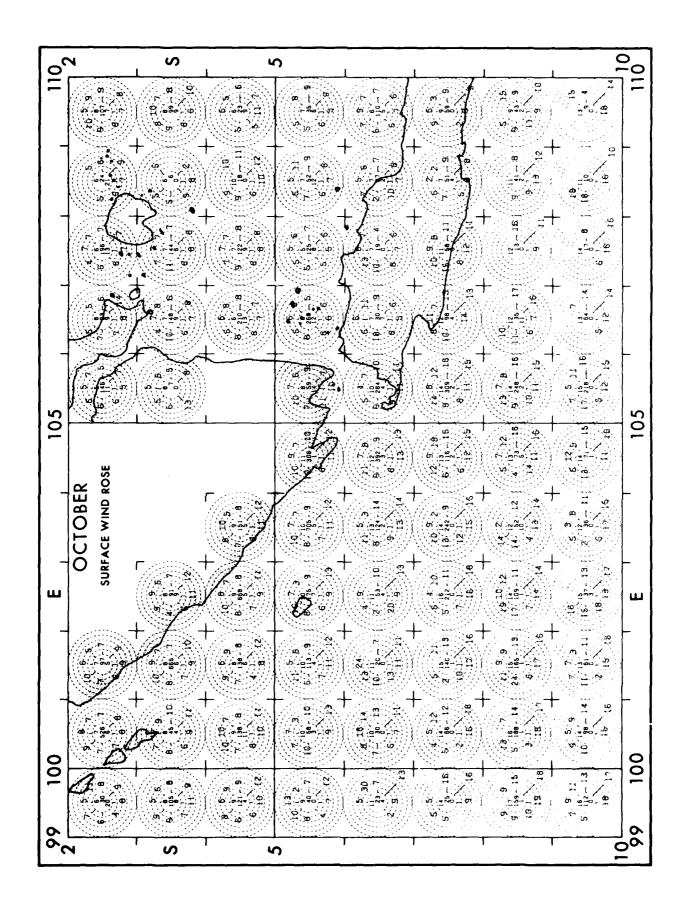


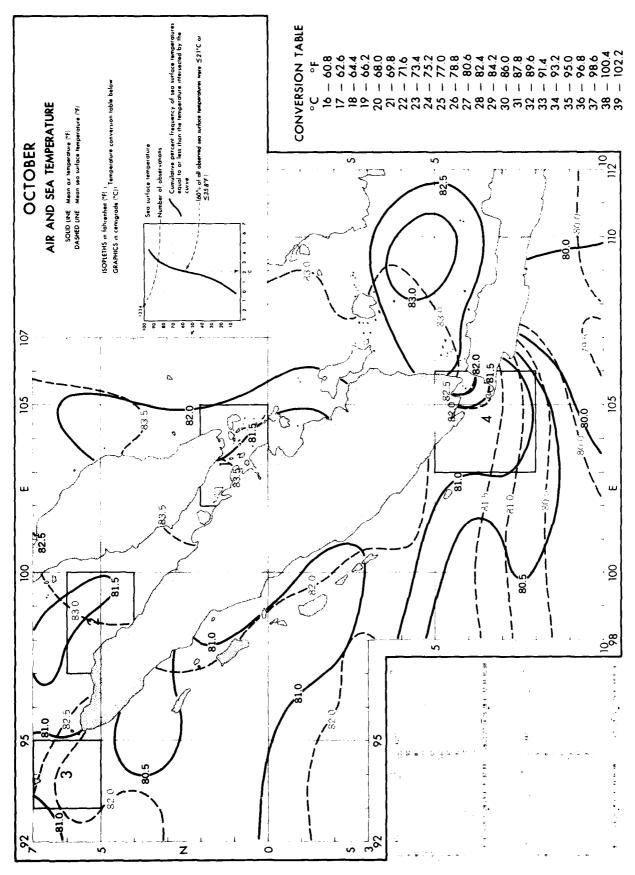


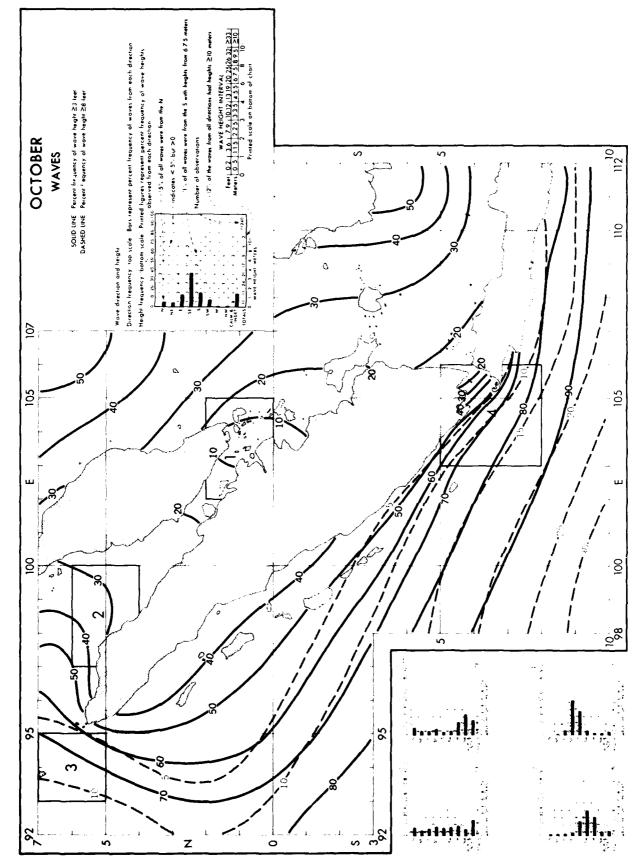


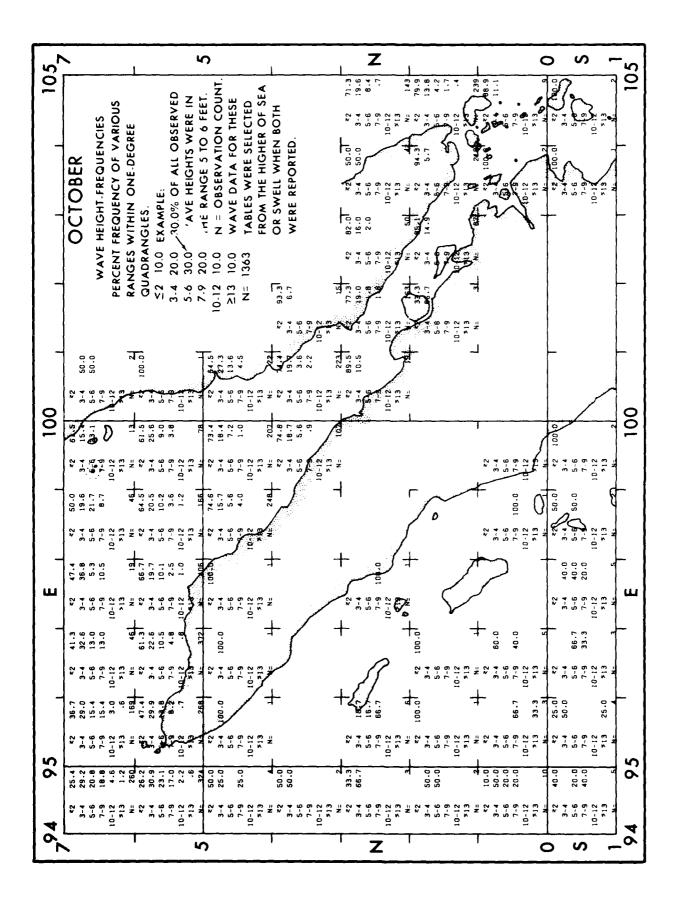


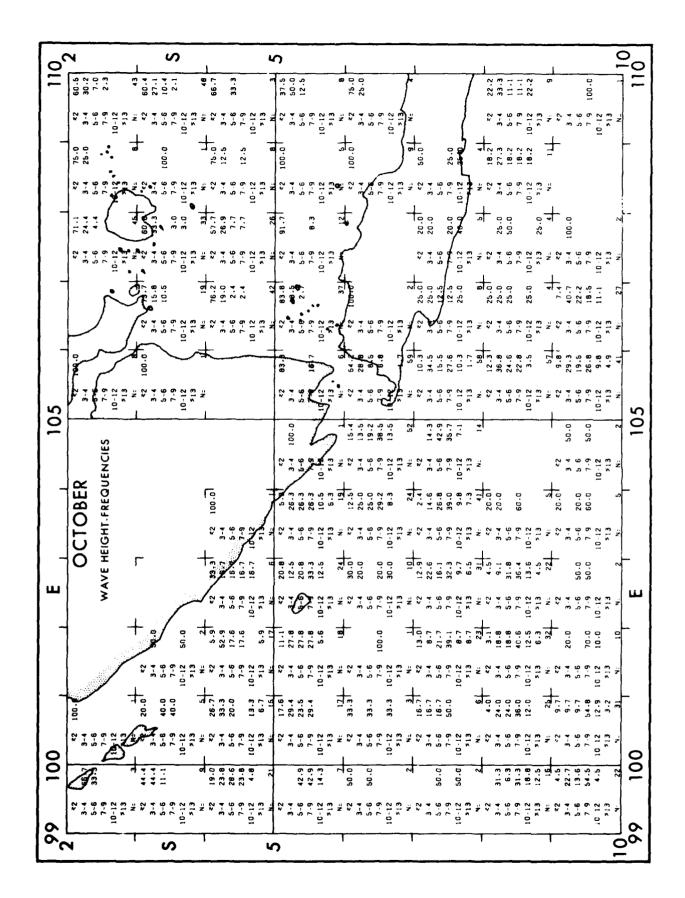


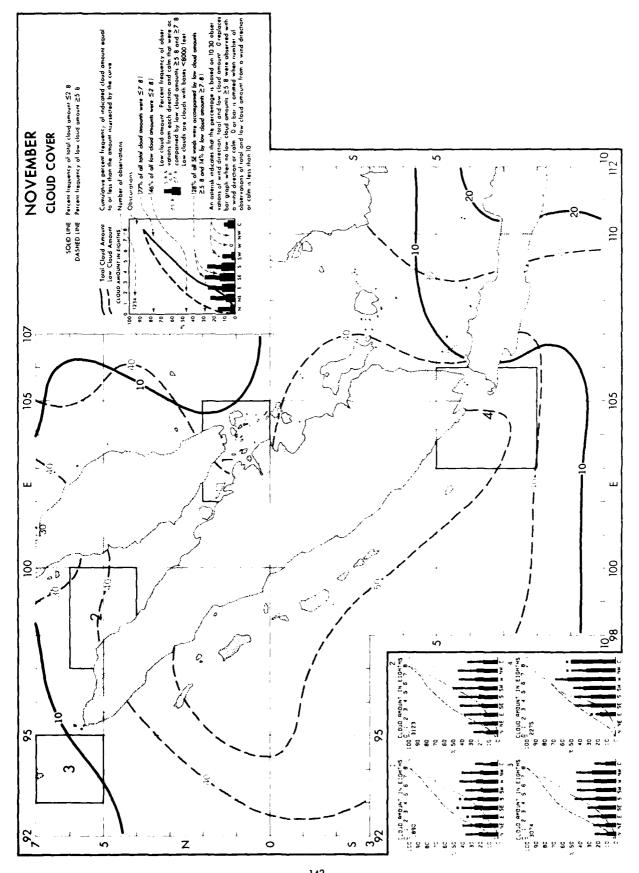


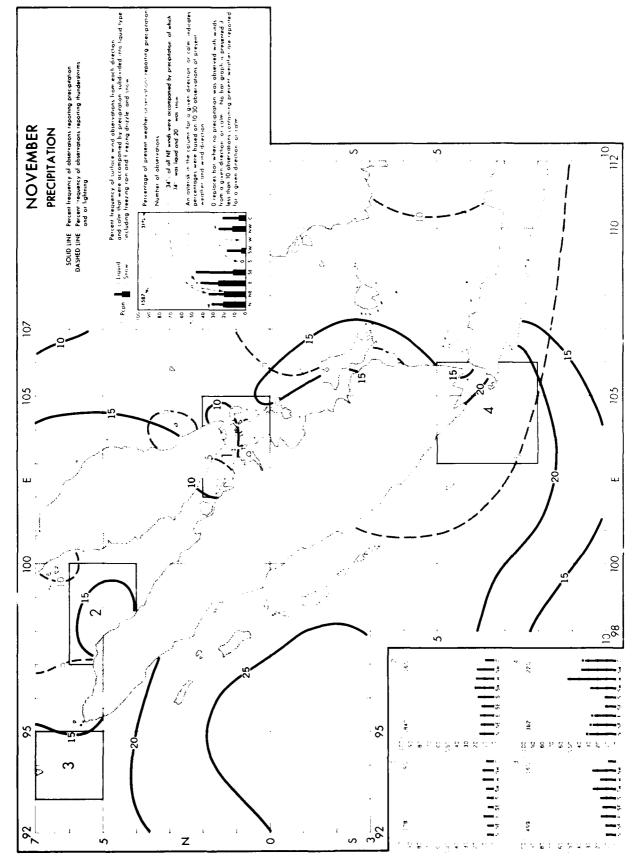


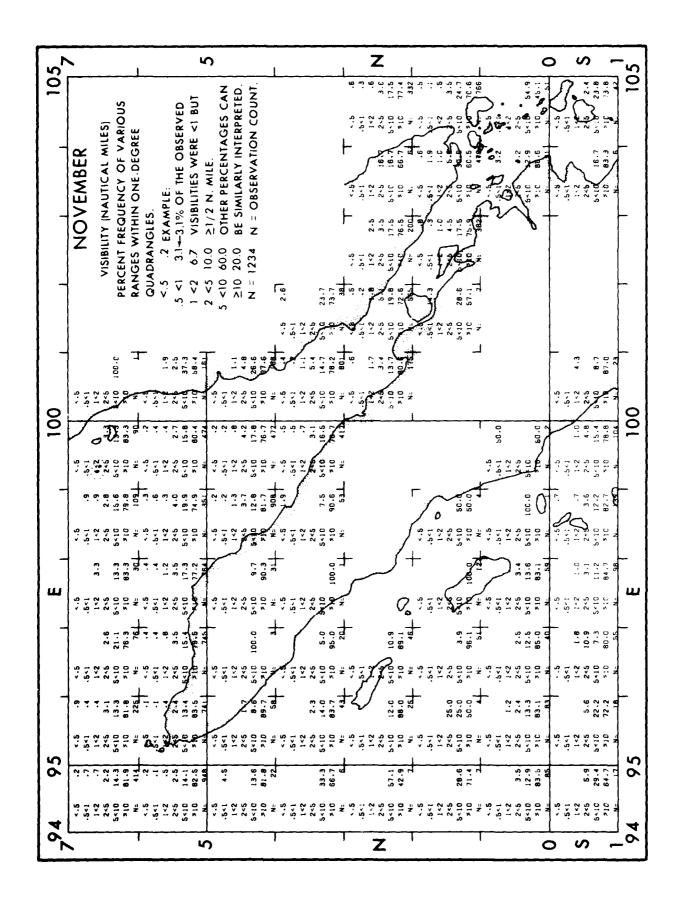


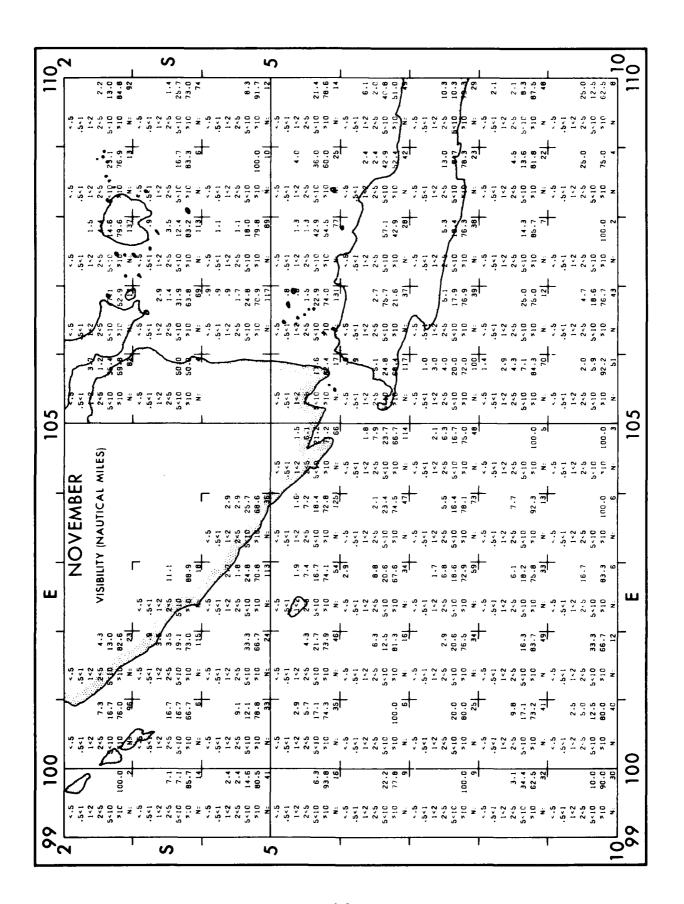


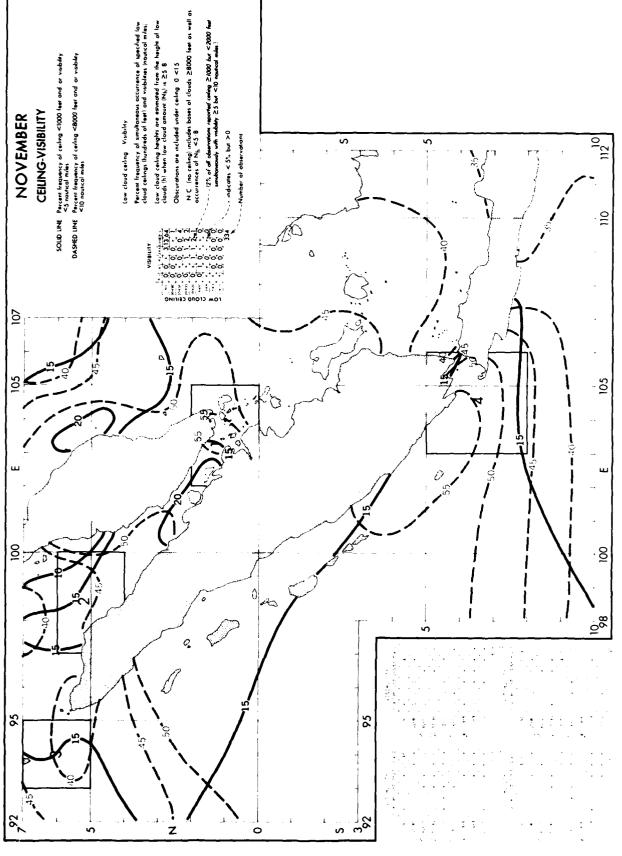


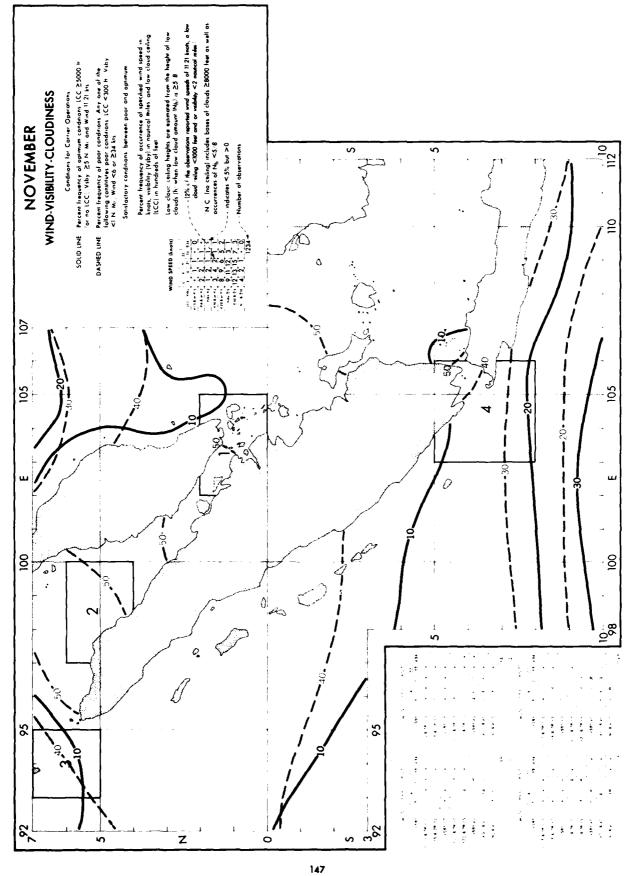


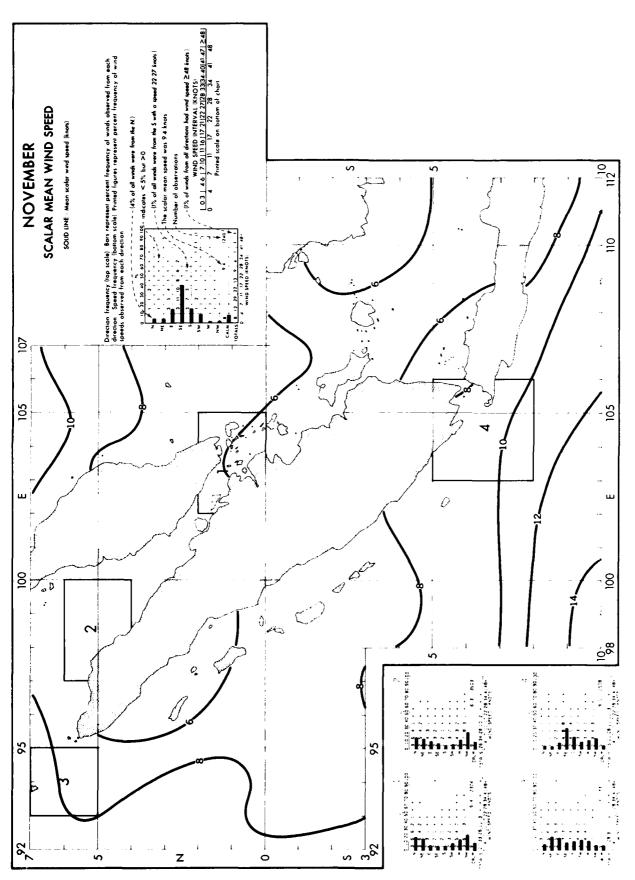


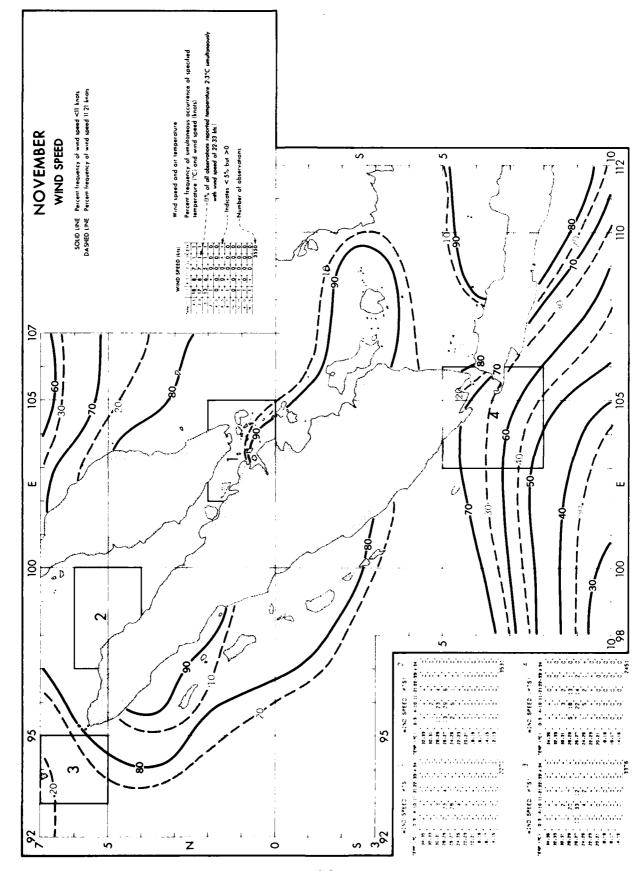


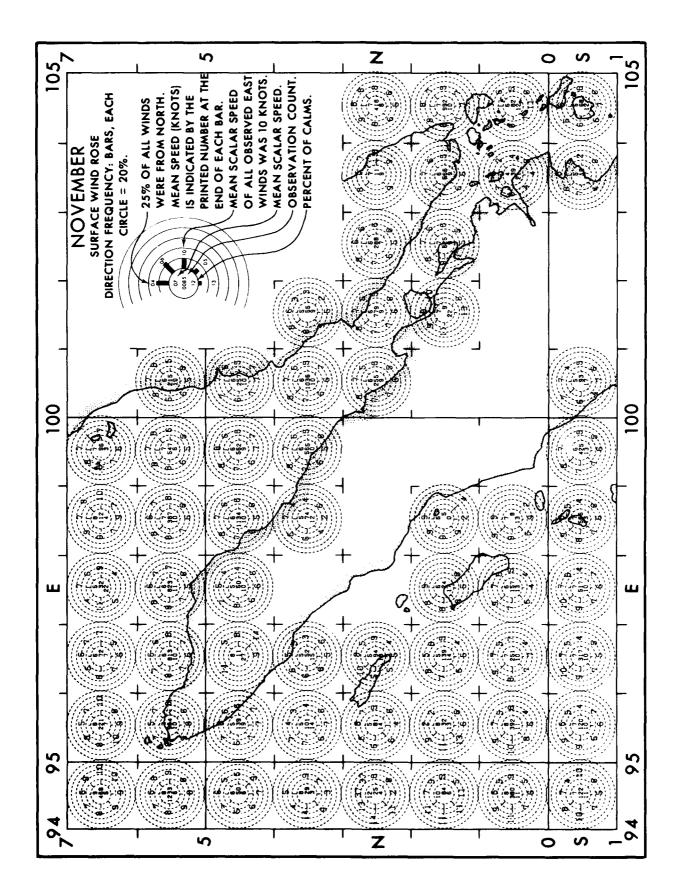


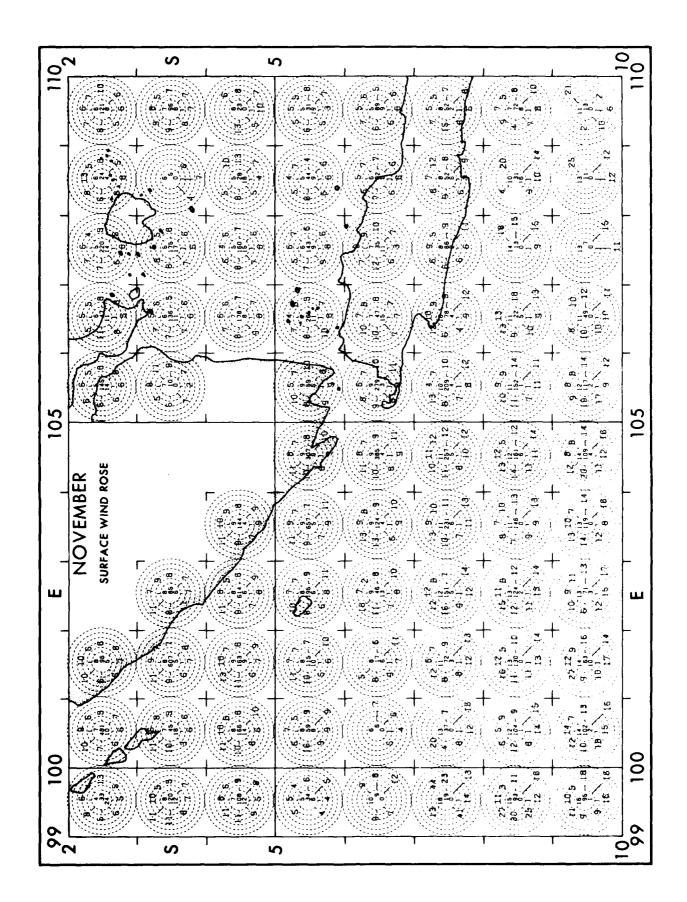


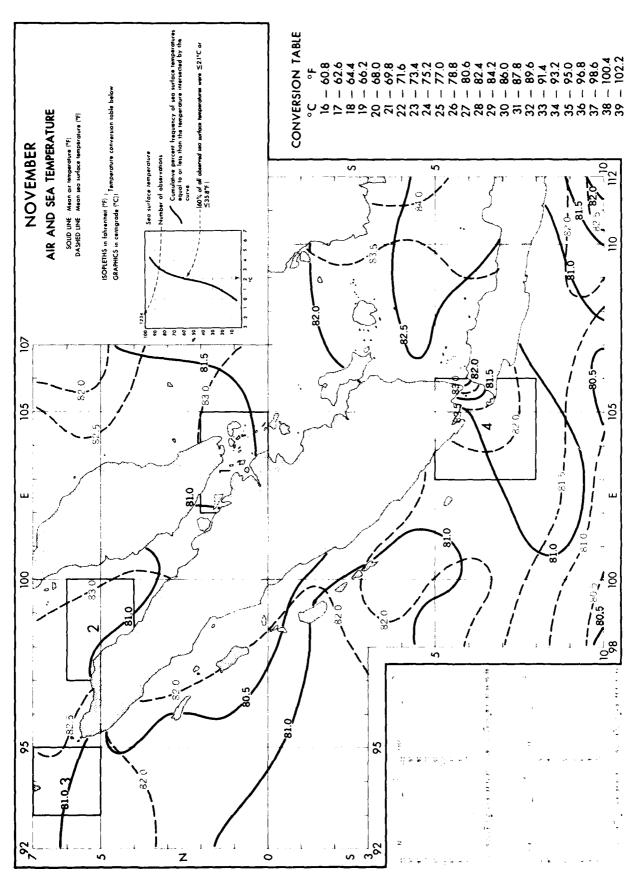


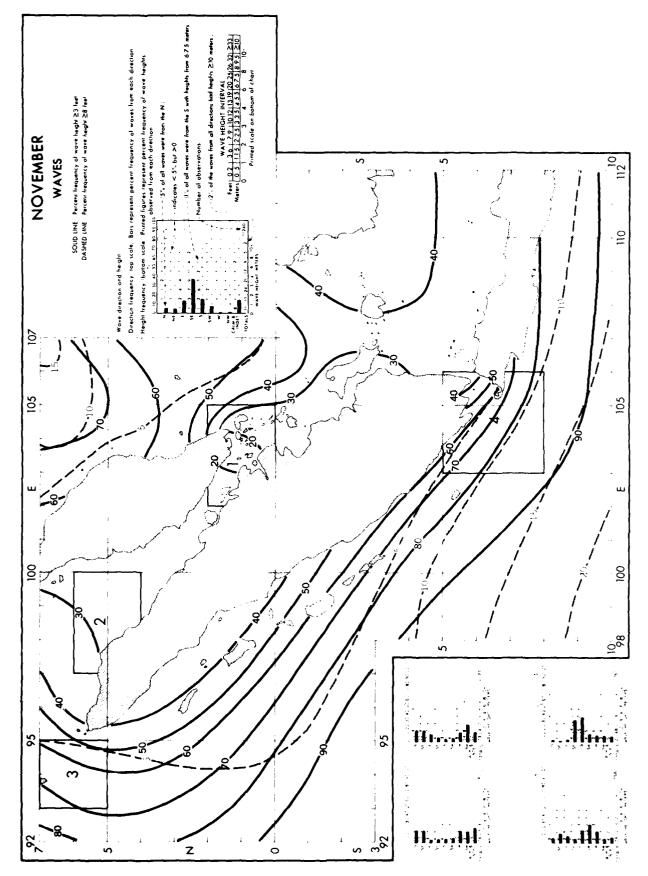


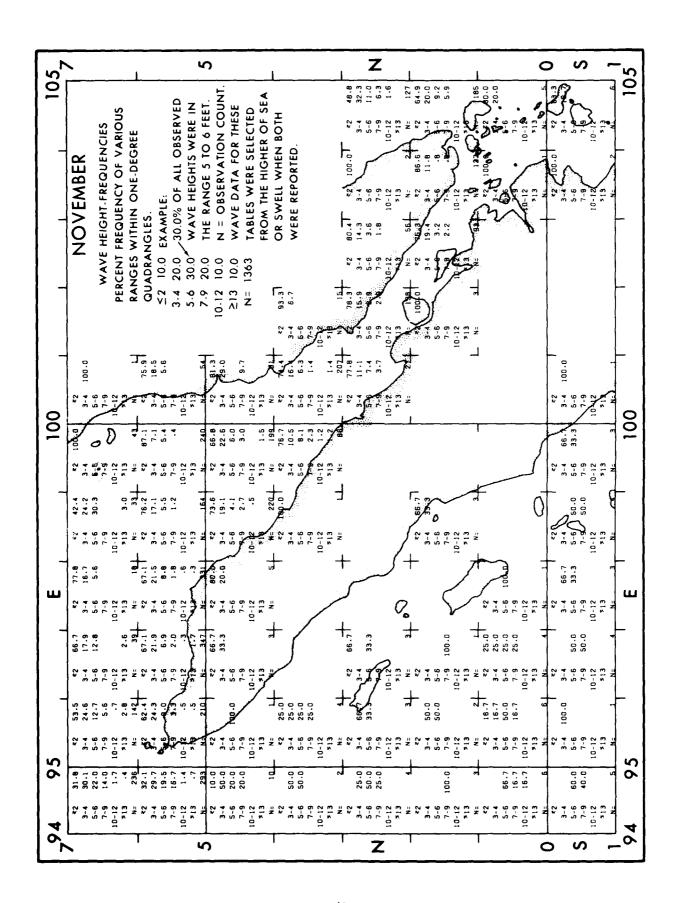


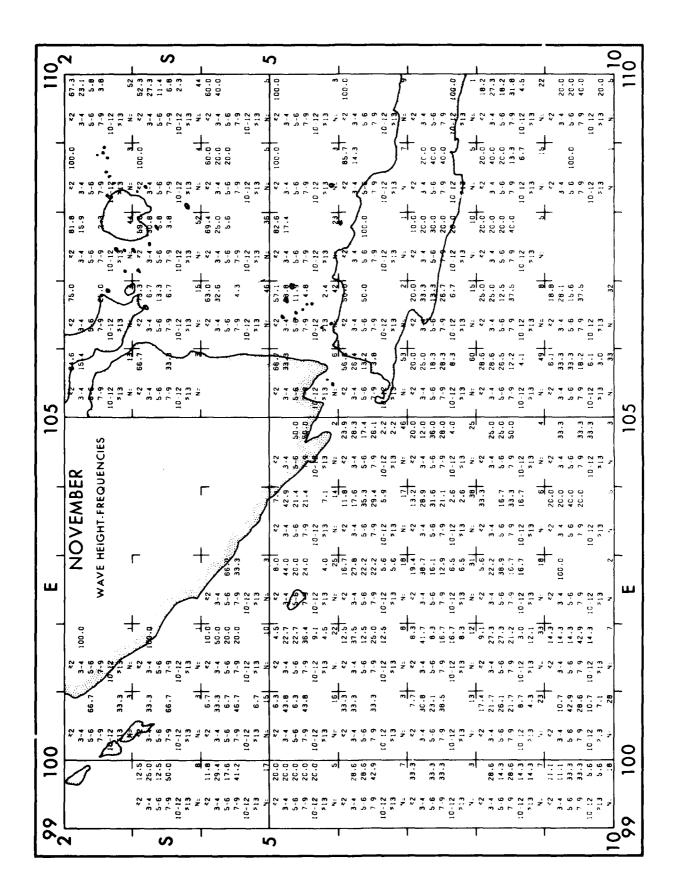


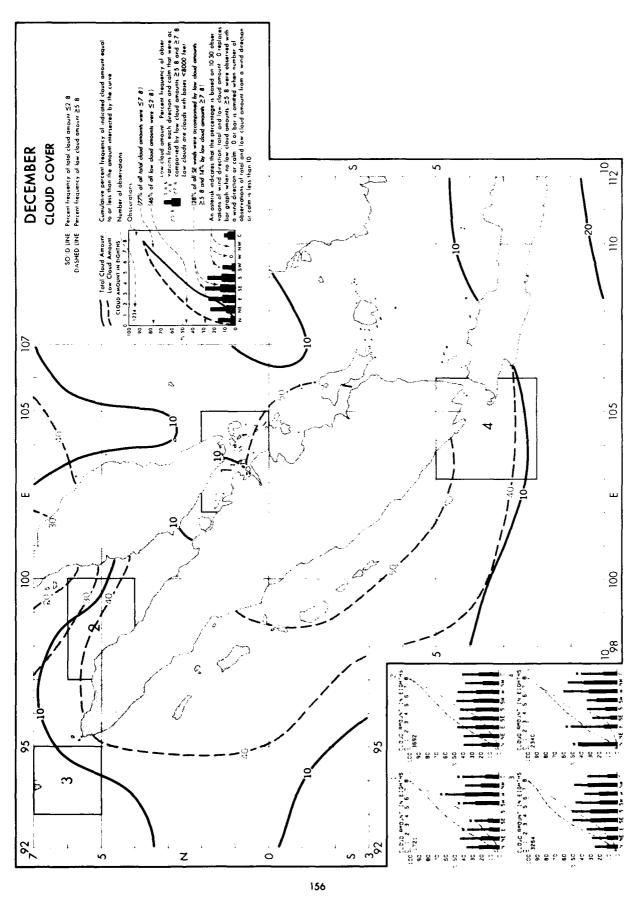


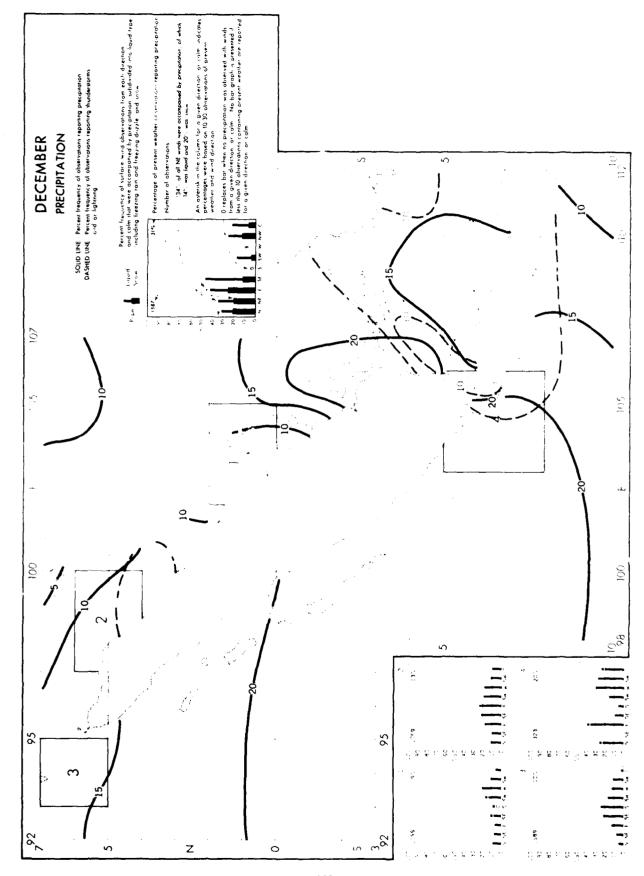


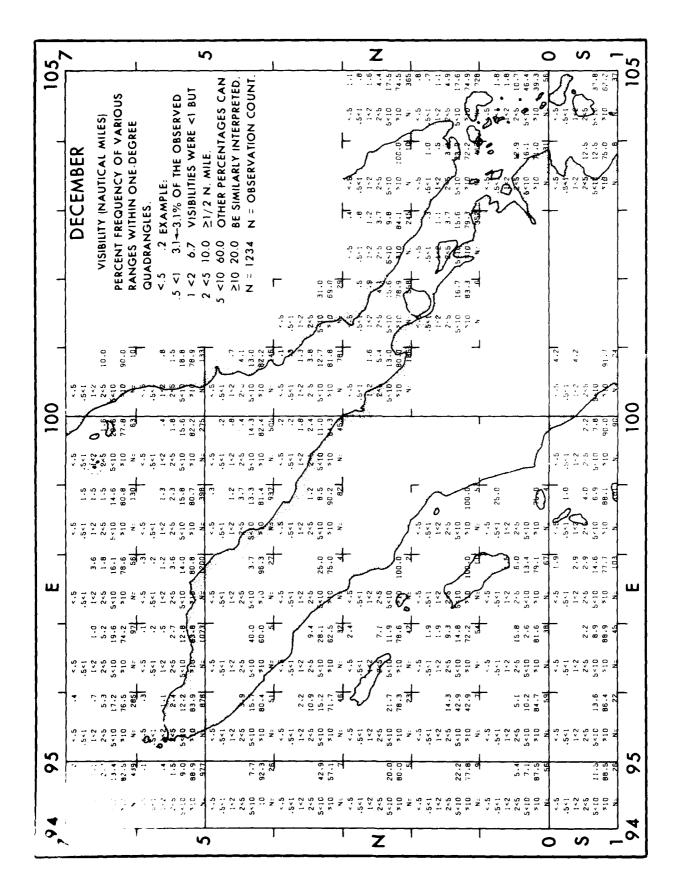


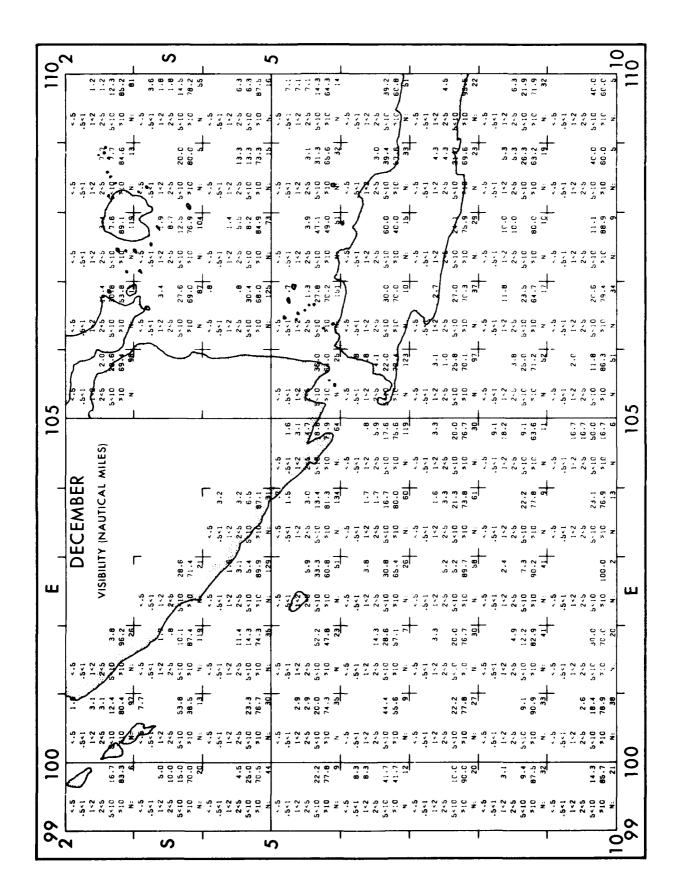


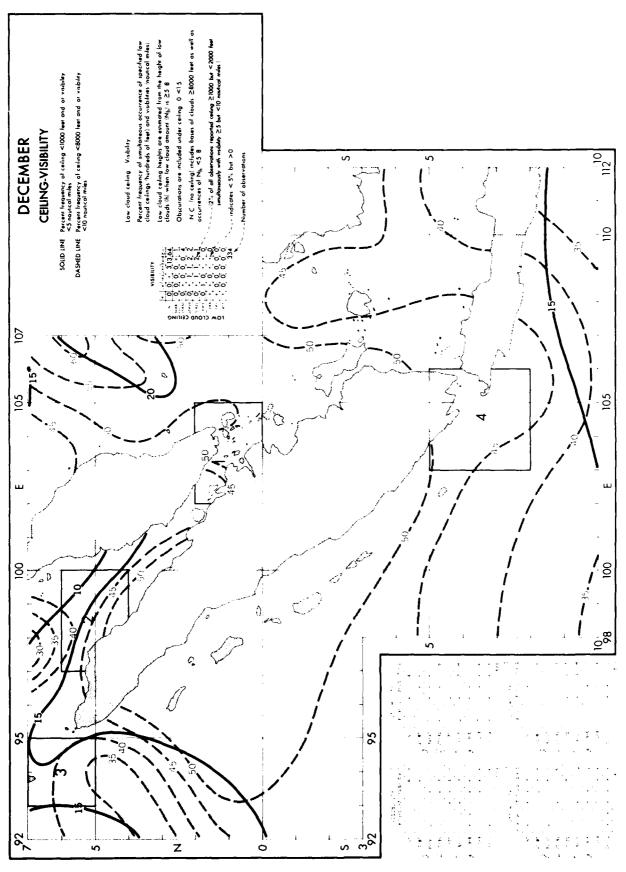


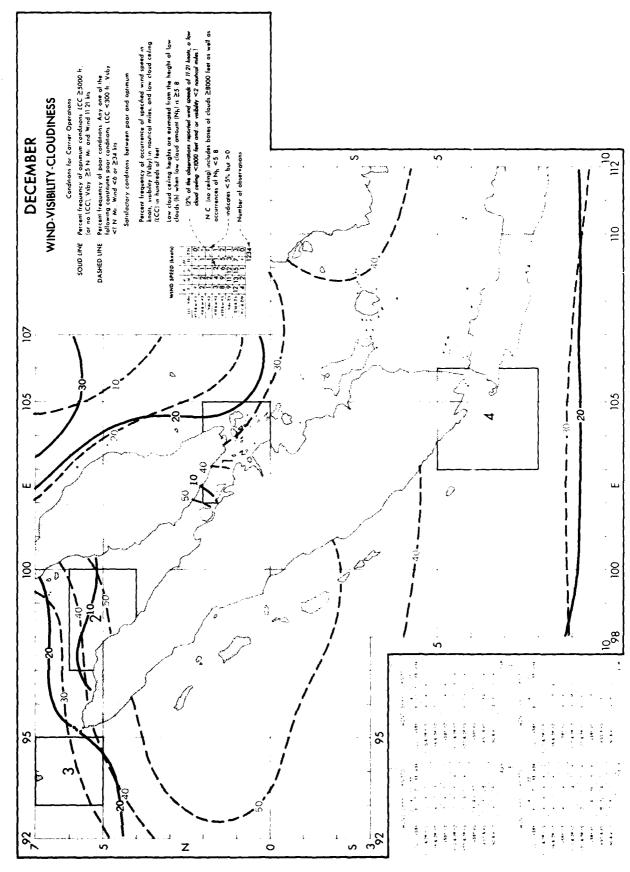


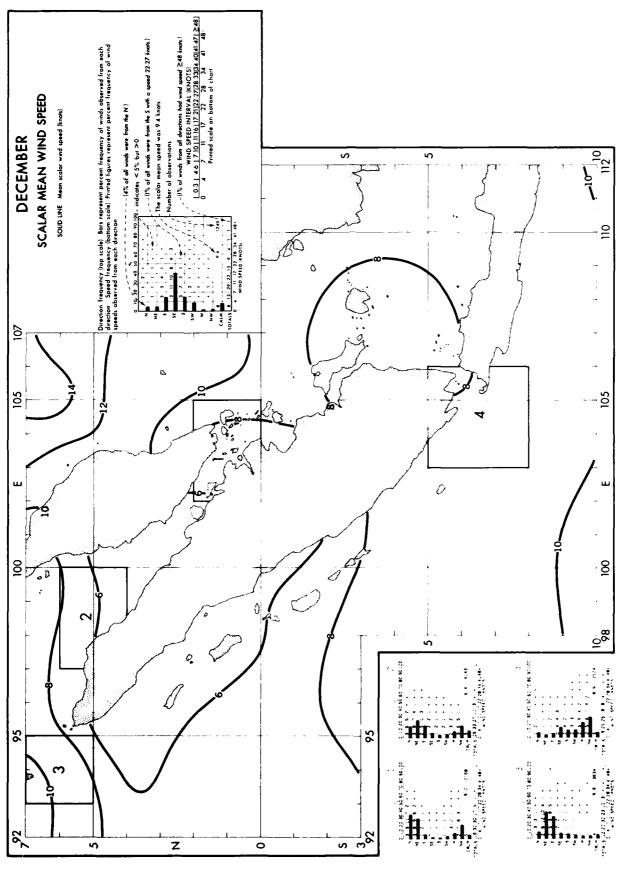


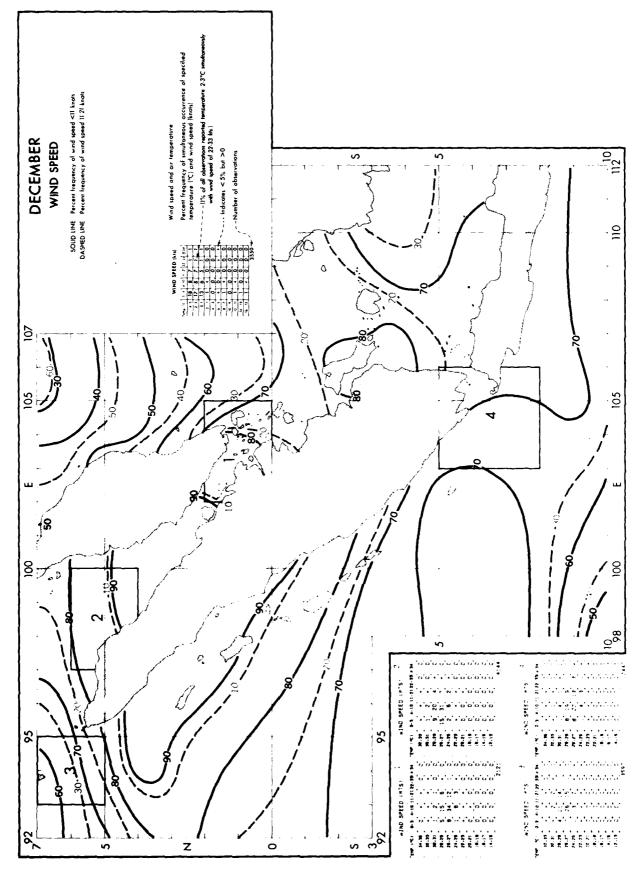


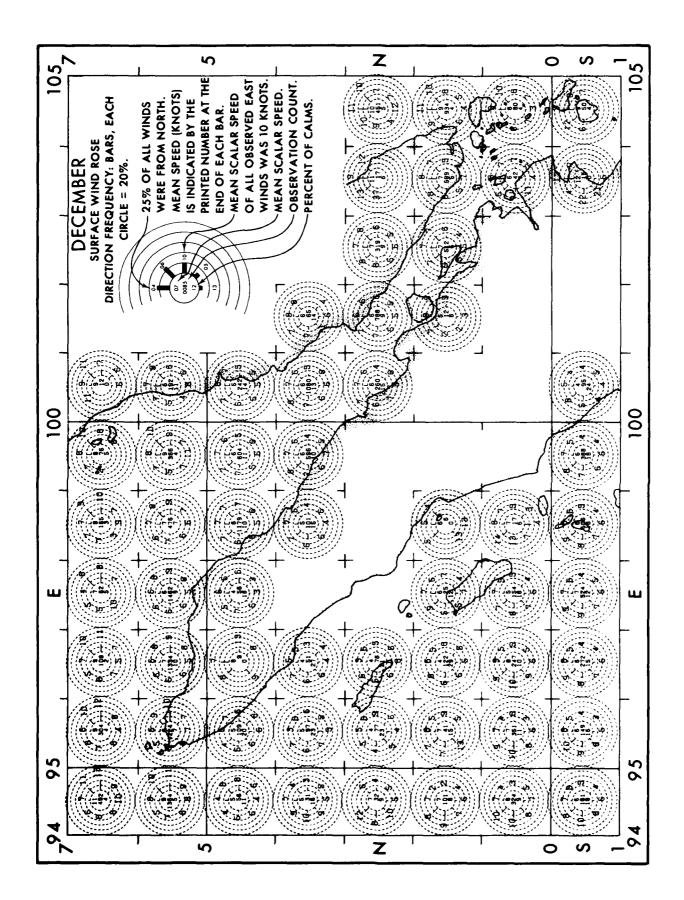


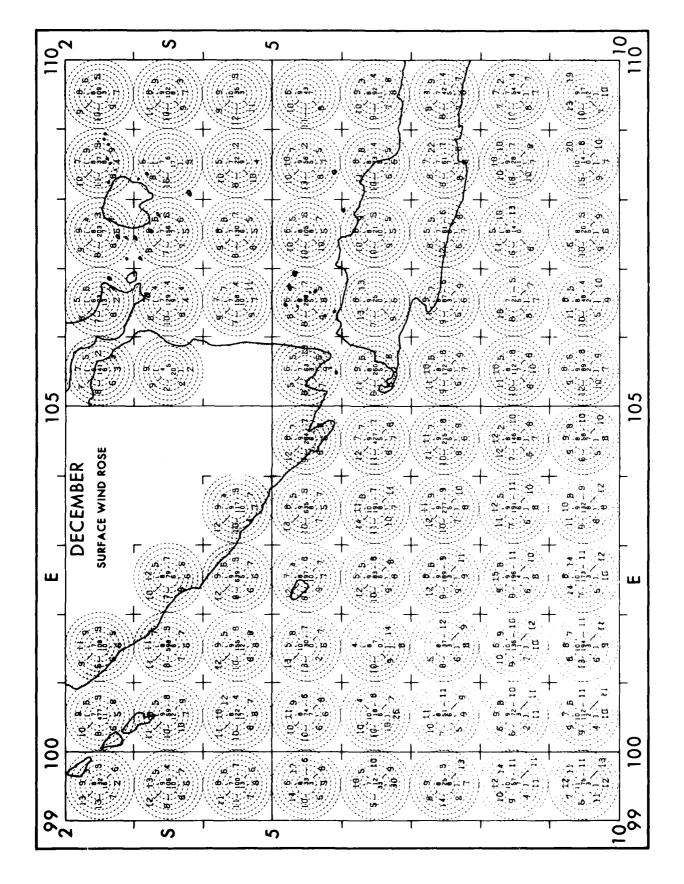


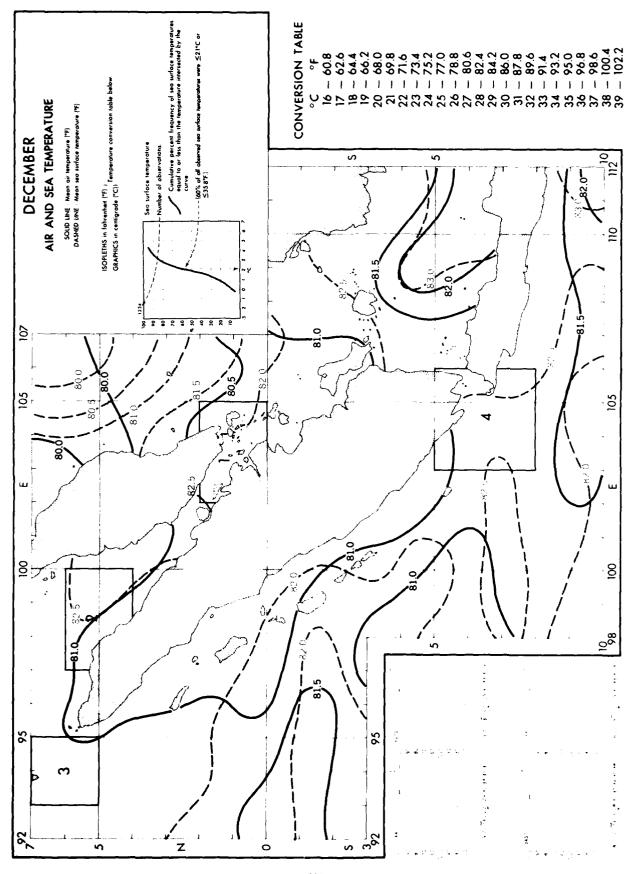


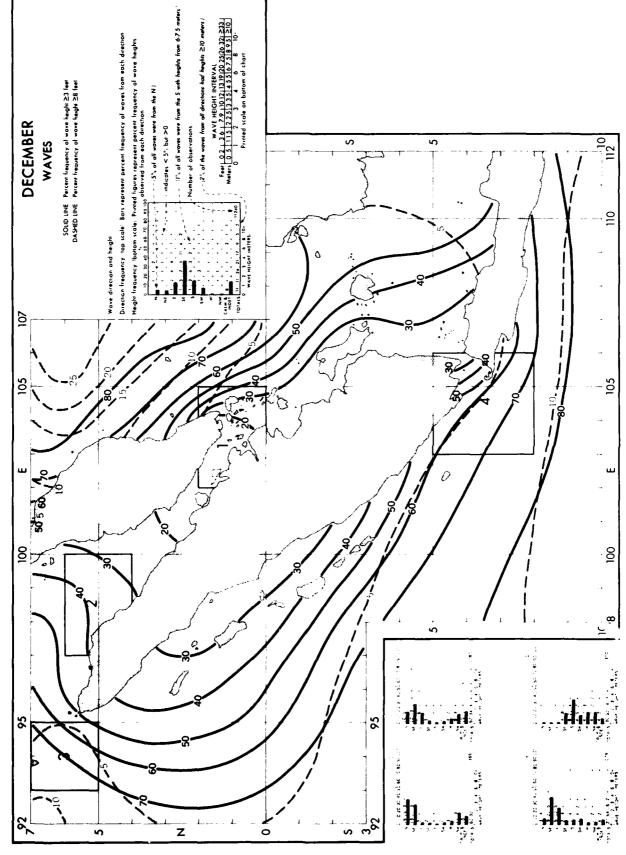


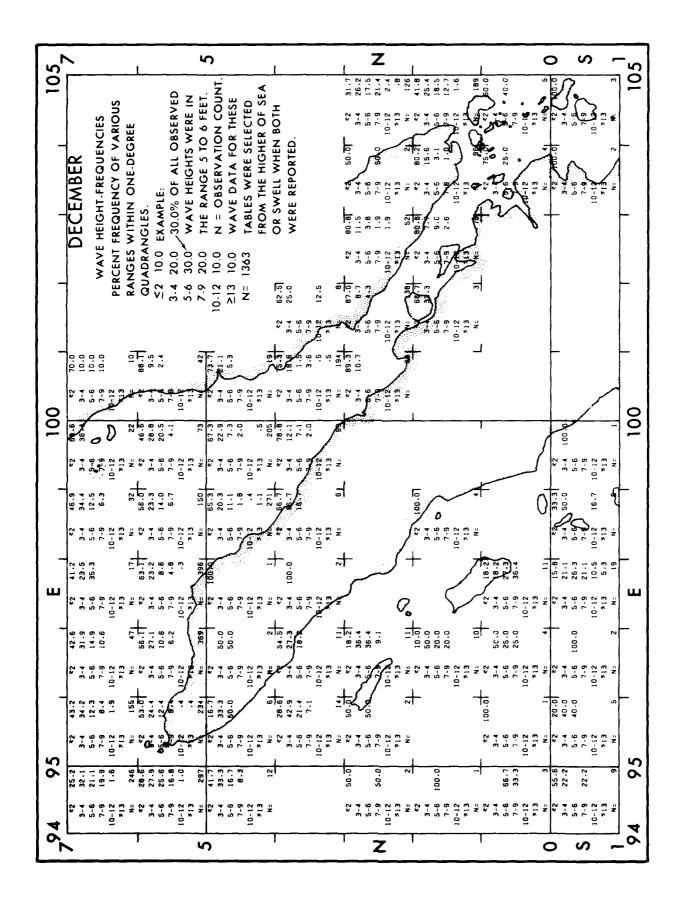










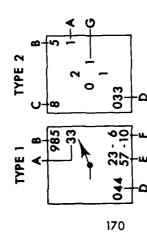


SURFACE CURRENTS

ata Presentation

The following legend shows two types of surface current presentations by 1° quadrangle, type 1 with 12 or more observations and type 2 with fewer than 12 observations. Where there are 11 or fewer observations within a 1° quadrangle, the total number of observations is shown within the 90° quadrant containing the observations

A Number of calms (included in total observations).



- **B** Total observations
- C Mean speed (0.8 knot) for all observations.
- D Vector resultant direction (°T) for all observations.
- E Percent frequencies (57% primary direction, 23% secondary direction).
- F Mean speeds (1.0 knot primary direction, 0.6 knot secondary direction).

G Number of observations by quadrant.

Type 1 - If there are 12 or more non-calm observations in a 1º quadrangle, the surface current is depicted by vector resultants as follows:

Persistent Current - 60 percent or more of all observations fall within a 45° sector of the 8-point compass.

Primary Current with Secondary Direction -

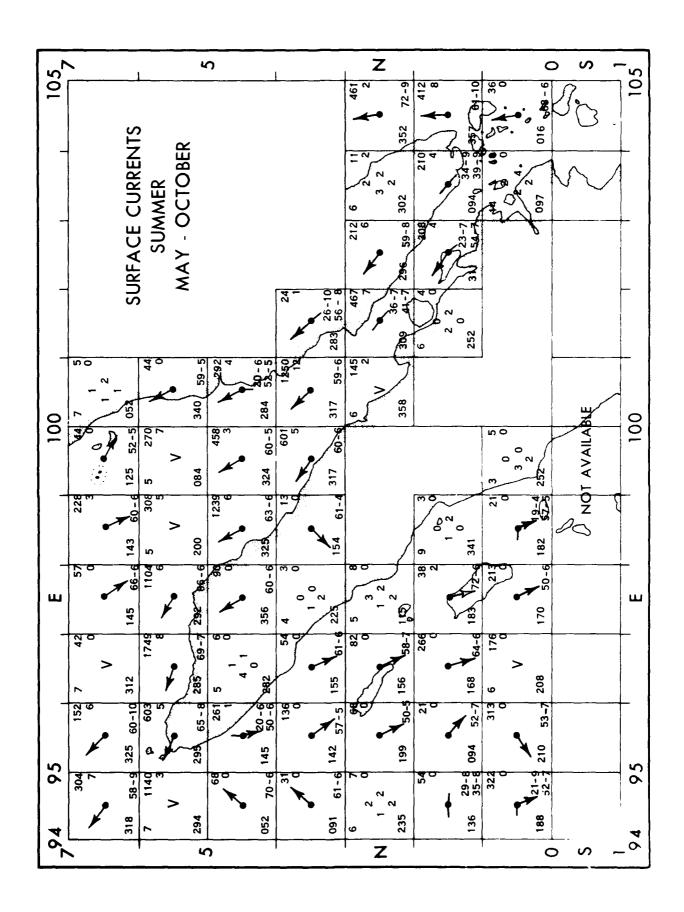
Primary Current - 50 percent or more of all observations fall within three adjacent 45° sectors.

Secondary Direction - 20 percent or more of all observations fall within a 45° sector, and the two resultant vector directions are separated by more than 90° of arc.

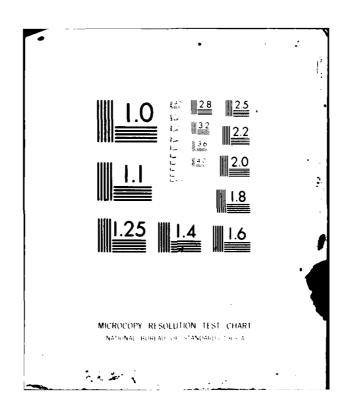
Prevailing Current - 70 percent or more of all observations fall within two adjacent 45° sectors.

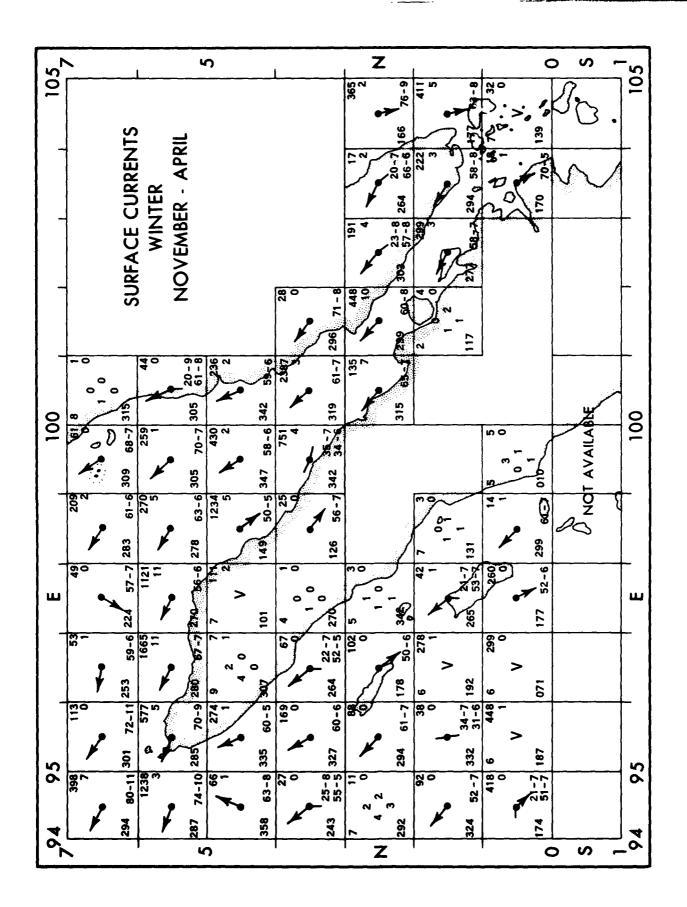
• <u>Bizonal Flow</u> - Practically all observations are concentrated in opposite pairs of 45° sectors, and one pair contains at least 80 percent as many observations as the opposite pair. This generally indicates variability that occurs in zones of entrainment between opposing currents.

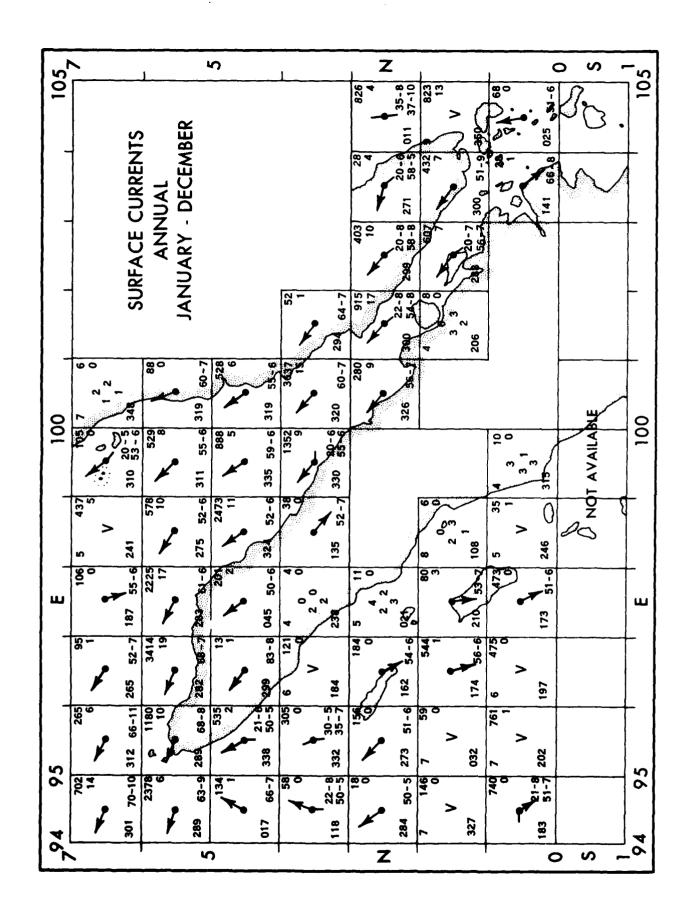
Variable Current - The 45° sector with most observations has less than 25 percent of all observations; direction is indeterminate.



NAVAL OCEANOGRAPHY COMMAND DETACHMENT ASHEVILLE NC F/6 4/2 CLIMATIC STUDY OF THE MALACCA AND SUNDA STRAITS, NEAR COASTAL Z--ETC(U) AD-A115 323 APR 82 UNCLASSIFIED · NL 3 ... 3 END DATE 107-183 ptic

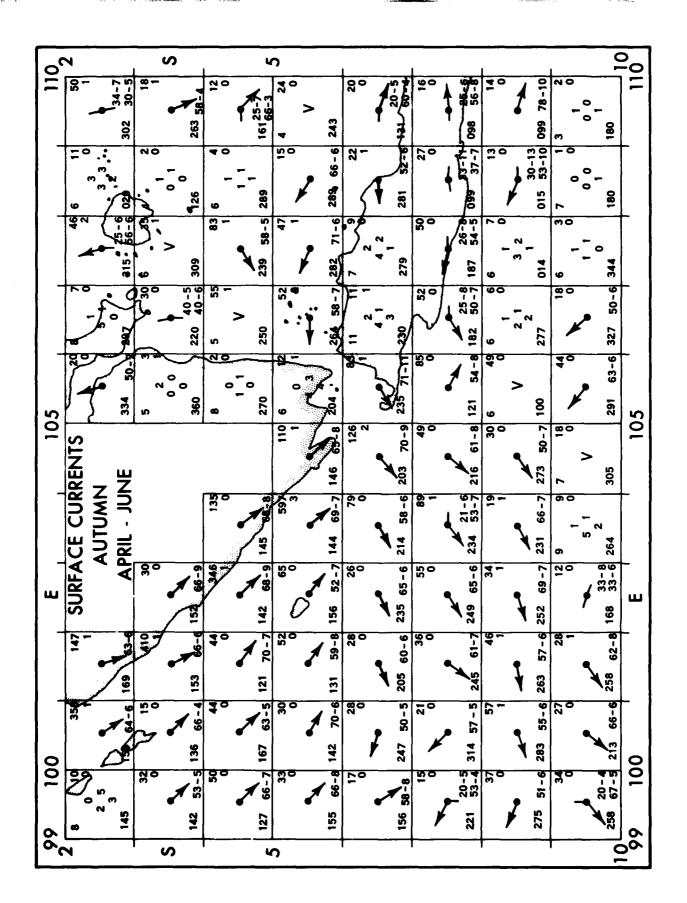






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